A Social Constructivist Learning Approach for an Online Civic Education Tutorial at Indonesia Open University

by

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Abstract

This study addressed the reforming of an online civic education tutorial at the Indonesia Open University or Universitas Terbuka (UT) based on a social constructivist learning approach and a democratic form of teaching. Several contemporary literatures were reviewed to determine best practices, including civic education, social constructivism, distance education, and a democratic form of teaching. Also, based on the interviews with students, tutors and administrators who were involved in the tutorial, the current practice of the existing online civic education tutorial was analyzed. Constructed from the review of literatures and the analysis of the current practice, the study proposes a model for a pedagogical approach to the online civic education tutorial at UT.

The findings from the interviews showed that most students were not satisfied with the tutorial; they felt that the civic education course and its online tutorial were monotonous, the case studies being discussed in the online tutorial were not up to date, and the amount of interaction among students, as with tutors was seen to be lacking. Furthermore, most tutors faced challenges in managing the large number of students enrolled in the online civic education tutorial, such as how to respond to all students in the discussions.

The proposed model for the online civic education tutorial in this study was based on the Community of Inquiry framework and a democratic form of teaching. The learning in the tutorial is theorized to occur within the community through the interaction of social presence, cognitive presence, and teaching presence. In social and cognitive presence, students would form an online community where they would have collaborative discussions and would be expected to practice critical thinking while reading and discussing current case studies. Teaching presence would occur when tutors promoted a democratic environment in the class, where they would model civic dispositions throughout their teaching. Tutors would show their respect and tolerance to students while facilitating discussion activities and giving instructions. Through this model, students and tutors would gain civic knowledge, skills and dispositions, as well experience with a democratic interaction that mirrors the interactions in a democratic society.
**Keywords:** civic education, online tutorial, social constructivist approach, democratic form of teaching
For my father and my mother
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Chapter 1.

Introduction

This dissertation addresses the reforming of an online civic education tutorial at the Indonesia Open University or Universitas Terbuka (UT) based on a social constructivist learning approach and a democratic form of teaching. I review several contemporary literatures that help to determine best practices from around the world, including civic education, social constructivism, distance education, and a democratic form of teaching. I also analyze the current practice of the existing online civic education tutorial at UT based on interviews with students, tutors, and administrators who are involved in the tutorial at UT. Then, constructed from the review of literatures and the analysis of the current practice, I propose a model for a pedagogical approach to the online civic education tutorial designed to address and develop civic knowledge, skills and dispositions—the components of civic education that are required to be retained by UT’s students after they take the online civic education tutorial.

This introductory chapter begins with my story about how I became interested in the topic of civic education and why I chose a social constructivist approach to pedagogy and learning in the first place. This is followed by brief descriptions of the characteristics of Indonesia, civic education and its purposes, civic education in higher education in Indonesia, a brief history of UT, and a brief introduction of the existing online civic education tutorial at UT. Then, the chapter presents the statement of the research problem, the context of the study, research questions, research methodology, and the significance of the study. The chapter concludes with the organization of the dissertation and overview of subsequent chapters.
1.1. My story

My interest in the topic of civic education was originally focused on the political participation of women in Indonesia. I saw that women in Indonesia are still under-represented in the Indonesian House of Representatives. In the 2009 Indonesian General Election, women obtained 101 out of 560 seats or 18 percent in the parliament (Surbakti, Supriyanto, & Asy‘ari, 2011). Even though that number has increased from the previous election in 2004, where the women obtained 65 out of 550 seats or 11.8 percent, it still has not reached the target of 30 percent of female representation in parliament that was written in the Indonesian Law of the General Election in 2008.

From these data, I was thinking that women might still need political education or civic education. I was going to design a civic education program that would increase their awareness of politics so they would become more active in political life, eventually increasing the number of women in parliament. However, in the process of thinking of this study, I realized that civic education is not just for women. It is essential for all citizens in Indonesia, in order for them to fully understand their rights and responsibilities and participate in civic or political life. Thus, the program that I designed in this study is a civic education program for all.

As an academic staff member at Universitas Terbuka (UT) Indonesia, my concern for the program that I would like to develop relates to this institution. Virtually all teaching at UT uses distance education that combines text-based and online learning. One of the subjects taught is civic education. Because of the large numbers of UT students and because they reside all over Indonesia, I hope the program will reach and influence many citizens in Indonesia.

For the pedagogical approach of a civic education program at UT, I am interested in applying a social constructivist approach. At first, I did not know where my interest of social constructivism came from. I thought I was just being practical. However, I was forced to search from my heart and to open my heart to find the answers. So, I searched for the answers from my heart, as though I had been told by someone I respect. Still, it is not easy. Civic education and social constructivism are two concepts with which I was not very familiar before. So, why I am interested? This is my story:
I am an introverted person. From the first grade until now, a Ph.D. candidate, I have never had many friends. I think people are not really interested in me. I have experienced some moments that gave me clues about it. I was a shy, quiet girl back then. I could not be like my friends, talking, laughing, and joking together so closely. They were friends who looked so "cool" to me. I always wanted to be closer to them, but I did not know how. Sometimes when they chatted, made jokes, and shared laughter I just sat there quietly, and did not know how to join them. I was like an outsider to them, and it made me so sad.

A sad thing that happened with my relationship with my friends was the “school bus moment,” when I was in the first grade. My friends and I always went to school together by school bus that was provided for us from my father’s office. Every day, the bus departed at 6:00 o’clock because our class began at seven o’clock in the morning. I usually waited for the bus at my best friend’s house with other friends, and then when the bus came, we got in together. One day, when we got in the bus, in the front seat, three of my cool friends had already sat there. They asked my best friends to sit with them together. I automatically also moved to join them. As an introverted, seven year-old girl, I just wanted to sit with my cool friends. But they rejected me. I was so shocked. I did not understand why they refused me in joining them. I almost cried at that time. I was so miserable. What I could do was just sit behind them and feel sad. And this scenario was repeated several times. I tried to think why they did that, but I did not know the answers.

The feeling of being rejected by friends was not unfamiliar to me at that time. There was a girl from the residence who was unfriendly with me. Once again, I did not know why. She was actually one of the good friends of my best friends. Thus, I tried to be her friend, too. However, every time I asked her to play with me, she refused. She even did not want to talk to me. And she did this only to me. Not to other friends. As an adult now, maybe I would just ignore her. Yet, as a kid, it made me wonder, asking why she did not like me, because I could not think of single reason that caused it.

This pattern continued until I was in junior high school, then high school, and even into university. At the university, when I was in an undergraduate program, I really
felt like an outsider. In the class of 1990, the female students in my major were just 7 out of about 40 students. It made us, the girls, close to each other and we always went anywhere together. However, I was still an introverted person at the university. Although we were always together, I was never as close to the others as my other six girlfriends. Once again, they could share jokes and laughter with other friends. Me? I could not. Not really. Sometimes I did join their conversations, made comments or jokes. But other times they were just ignoring me. They did not pay attention or did not care about my comments. Often, my girlfriends refused to allow me to sit next to them in class. I tried to sit in the middle of them, and tried to be involved in their conversations, but they always moved away from me. So I always ended up sitting on the side, and I missed their conversations. One day, when we were on the way home from campus, my girlfriends even asked me to get out of the car in the middle of the road, and told me to continue the journey by bus. I did not know exactly why they did that, but perhaps they wanted to go to someplace where they did not want me to join them.

So, why would they do something like that to me? What was wrong with me? I always guessed that the problem was *me*. I think that I am quite a sensitive person. It is not pleasant when people ignore us, especially when we do not know the reasons. Those experiences make me think and feel that attention is one of the reasons to make people feel good and happy. We need attention in our life, and I think it is important to give attention to other people who need it. So in distance education, where the students hardly have contact with the instructors, attention is needed to make them feel that they belong in the courses.

From these experiences, I also wonder about relationships and interaction, the quality of these, and what they have to do with creating and maintaining a civil society. I am interested in how people should treat one another civilly. Sometimes people can treat other people badly because of their differences in social status, economy, religion, or culture, and it can lead to conflicts with violence. That is one of the reasons that I am interested in civic education, because it explores how individuals and communities decide to get along, to educate people to become good and responsible citizens in the community. I believe every student needs opportunities to understand others, to be understood, and to find a sense of belonging. These lie at the heart of finding a place
and voice to contribute to civic society. Social constructivism provides a pedagogical platform to allow all students to find their civic voice and agency.

1.2. The Background of Indonesia and its Unique Characteristics

Indonesia is a developing nation and is a pluralistic and diverse country. It is the world’s largest archipelago with over 17,000 islands. Demographically, Indonesia is the fourth most populous country in the world (after China, India, and the United States of America), with over 240 million people. It represents a mosaic of 300 distinct ethnic groups and regional cultures with over 350 local languages and dialects spoken among them. Bahasa Indonesia is used as a national language and it is considered as the unitary language for Indonesian people. The people of Indonesia also practice one of six officially sanctioned religions, namely Islam, Protestant Christianity, Catholicism, Hinduism, Buddhism and Confucianism. Indonesia is the world’s most populous Moslem-majority nation. According to a demographic census from Indonesia Central Bureau of Statistic in 2010, the Moslem population in Indonesia is about eighty-seven percent, followed by Protestant Christianity which is about seven percent, Catholicism is about three percent, Hinduism is about 1.7 percent, Buddhism is about 0.7 percent, and Confucianism is about 0.05 percent. From these features, it is seen that Indonesia is one of the most diverse countries in the world.

1.2.1. Internal Challenges

All these demographic differences can lead to potential conflicts and can be a threat to the unitary state of the nation. In the past, there were separatist movements in Aceh and Papua provinces, where the provinces wanted to be independent from Indonesia. These issues had caused armed conflicts in the provinces, and they have been subsided for now. However, social conflicts still occurs around Indonesia archipelago until recently. According to the notes from the Ministry of Home Affairs of the Republic of Indonesia, in the last three years from 2010 to 2012, Indonesia has experienced hundreds of social conflicts because of many reasons, including ethnic and
Lampung is a province in Sumatra Island with many ethnicities, such as Javanese and Balinese, besides ethnicities from Lampung itself. Ethnics from Java and Bali came to Lampung through a transmigration project sponsored by the government of Indonesia from the 1960s to the 1980s. The conflict that occurred in Lampung in October 2012 was a conflict between villagers from two different villages. The conflict was triggered by the news that some youths from Balinuraga village had done unpleasant things to two girls from Agom village. Both villages are located in the District Kalianda, South Lampung. When hearing the news, people from Agom village were angry and attacked Balinuraga village. The conflict lasted for three days and 14 people died and dozens of homes were burned. The conflict turned into inter-ethnic conflict because the majority of Balinuraga’s villagers are homesteaders from Bali and most of them are Hindu. Meanwhile, the villagers of Agom village are local Lampung people and most of them are Moslem.

Conflict in Lampung is just an example of disharmonious relationships between citizens from different ethnics and religions. Authorities and some scholars argue that one of the reasons for social conflicts in Indonesia is a lack of respect among fellow community members with different social backgrounds (Maharani & Ramadhan, 2012). In a pluralistic society like Indonesia, mutual trust should be emphasized, so that each group in society does not feel alienated. A provocative member in the group may have an attitude that may harm the tolerance that has been built.

These internal problems, especially social conflicts based on ethnicity and religion is a significant challenge because they could harm democracy and the unity of Indonesia. The unity of Indonesia with its diverse religions, ethnic groups and languages has to be protected by all Indonesia’s citizens. Social cohesion and social harmony in a pluralistic Indonesian frame need to be constantly constructed. To build social cohesion and harmonious actions dialogues are needed, either in formal and non-formal forums to form trust relationships among communities. (“Terkoyaknya harmoni sosial,” 2012). Dialogues between factions in a pluralistic society are inclined by an education, such as...
character education ("Pluralisme terus terusik," 2013). Character education can be taught within societies and schools, and the form of character education could be civic education.

**1.2.2. External Challenges**

The challenges that are faced by Indonesia not only come from internal factors but also from external factors. One of the primary external challenges is globalization. The era of globalization has caused the world to change rapidly. Also, technology has changed the world’s communities, including the people of Indonesia, toward being open to new information, new forms of social networking and media production, and bringing new possibilities for identity and agency.

Globalization in this context has become a challenge that has to be anticipated. As part of the world community, every Indonesian citizen is required to be able to adapt the Indonesian values in the global context. Such a process of rapid change due to the impact of globalization is significant for the life of the nation and communities of Indonesia. The values of Indonesian culture and civilization are being replaced with global values; the preparation and process of adjustment for this transition underscores the need for a civic education that engages students in a rich way.

Ohmae (1996) argued that globalization of capital, labour and communication has brought pressures on nation states. If individual nation states want to compete successfully in the world economy, they cannot be insulated or detached from the rest of the nation states in the world. However, they risk losing their local values and identities if they allow themselves to be wholly integrated into globalised patterns of activity and behaviour (Kennedy, 2004).

Ohmae (1996) also stated that beside globalization, localism is the threat for nation states, as well. It is a localism bred from extremist fundamentalism that seeks to impose its own form of ideology on individuals and nation-states. The bombings in Bali in 2002 and 2005 as well as in Jakarta in 2009 reflect the form and substance of this kind of fundamentalism. Its function is to assert a different set of values and a different way of living, and its impact is designed to be global. To protect and increase their individual
national identities from globalization and fundamentalism, nation-states traditionally have used civic education programs (Kennedy, 2004).

1.3. An Overview of Civic Education and Its Purposes

Every nation recognizes the importance of character building in order to preserve and maintain its existence as a nation. The general ideas are to shape the character and personality of the nations to become strong and or resistant to various external influences (Wahab & Sapriya, 2011). What kind of national characteristics leaders would like to be formed, depends of course on the messages, ideals, or national goals that are stated in the constitution of a nation. In the last century, many countries in the world began to change or shift their government systems from non-democratic to democratic systems of governance. Indonesia, which proclaims itself as a sovereign nation, is also committed to the democratic government system and it is stated in its constitution.

To actualize the democratic pillars requires a democratic effort or a democratic educational process. Alexis de Toqueville stated that each new generation consists of a new people who have to acquire knowledge, develop attitudes, and learn the necessary skills in developing the character or nature of public and private services in line with a constitutional democracy (Wahab & Sapriya, 2011). Here, we see that in order to establish a democratic society, it is necessary to provide an ongoing, well-established democratic education that is constant and continuous through educational institutions or community agencies. Branson (1998) asserted that democracy is not a machine that works by itself, but rather must always be consciously reproduced from one generation to the next. The most strategic process of a democratic education, especially for the next generation, is learning through civic education.

Every nation in the world has ideals of and for its citizens in the future. In general, the goal of a nation developing civic education is for every citizen to be a good citizen, a citizen who has intelligence—intellectual, emotional, social, and spiritual—has a sense of pride and responsibility, and is able to participate in the life of society and country, in order to grow a sense of nationality and patriotism (Wahab & Sapriya, 2011). Educating people to be good citizens who have good character and who are responsible, active
and dedicated to humanity, their country and their fellow human beings is one of the fundamental tasks of a nation. The development and progress of a nation depend on the quality of the citizens (Wahab & Sapriya, 2011). If not supported by qualified human resources, the country will not thrive; will not have a high degree of bargaining power, and will not able to compete with other countries. To fulfill this civic qualification, many countries have civic education programs to educate their young as well as adult citizens.

Civic education is one of the important components in the framework of nations and the character building of their citizens (Wahab & Sapriya, 2011). Civic education helps to prepare citizens in general and the younger generation in particular, to engage actively, creatively, and effectively in the political life of the country, both at local and national levels. Civic education is an essential dimension in strengthening the communities in being able to manage their own activities. Thus, civic education helps prepare citizens to create social changes in society.

1.4. A Brief History of Civic Education in Higher Education in Indonesia

In Indonesia, civic education was introduced in the school year as part of the national curriculum. Its purpose was to foster a love of the homeland in the form of Pendidikan Bela Negara (Patriotism Education), which was carried out in two phases. Mikhael, Sihotang, Sutrisno, Soegito, and Heru (2011) asserted that in the initial phase, civic education was available to elementary and secondary school students in the form of Scouting. Meanwhile, in the advanced phase, civic education was given in higher education in the form of Pendidikan Kewiraan (Civics). Also, under President Suharto in New Order era, students from primary school to university undertook compulsory courses in the state ideology, Pancasila.¹ For school students the compulsory Pancasila courses had various manifestations, from the Pancasila Moral Education of the mid-1970s to 1990s to the Pancasila and Civic Education that was introduced in the 1994 curriculum (Jackson & Bahrissalim, 2007). This subject continued to be taught in schools

¹ I describe Pancasila in more detail in Chapter 2.
until 2004, when the Pancasila element was removed and the subject was renamed Civic Education (Winataputra, 2003, p. 2). In this thesis, I will focus on civic education in post-secondary education.

At the beginning of its implementation, based on a Joint Decree between the Minister of Education and Culture and the Minister of Defense and Security in 1973, Pendidikan Kewiraan (Civics) in higher education was formulated in terms of the defense of the state, with the goal of fostering students’ love of the country, concern for the nation and state, confidence in Pancasila as the state ideology, willingness to make sacrifices for the nation and state, and capability to defend the nation. The content of the curriculum was shaped by concerns for national security and defense, and the course was characterized by doctrinal teaching (Mikhael et al., 2011). The subject’s militaristic approach to Pendidikan Kewiraan is indicated by the fact that its teachers were trained at the National Defense Institute (Lembaga Pertahanan Nasional), the Indonesian military’s officer training school (Jackson & Bahrissalim, 2007).

Based on the Law of National Education System Number 2/1989, Pendidikan Kewiraan (Civics) as a form of Civic Education became a core compulsory course for all university students across all disciplines in Indonesia, together with Religious Education and Pancasila Education. However, the content of the curriculum was still doctrinal. Since the fall of President Suharto in 1998 after 32 years in power, Indonesia has been expected to become more democratic; civic education at all levels of education, including university, has been undergoing change. Civic education’s curriculum at that time was the priority to be revised by the Department of National Education (now Ministry of Education and Culture). There were a series of national-level conferences to determine the future direction and needs for a new civic education curriculum with the result of issuing a new curriculum for school and university (Jackson & Bahrissalim, 2007).

In accordance to the Decree of the Minister of National Education Number 232/U/2000, Pendidikan Kewiraan (Civics) was revised and the name was changed to Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan (Civic Education). In 2002, the Directorate General of Higher Education revised the policy on core compulsory courses. Civic Education
(Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan), together with Religious Education and Bahasa Indonesia became compulsory courses in universities (Jackson & Bahrissalim, 2007). Civic Education replaced Pendidikan Kewiraan (Civics). Civic Education also is stated as one of the Personality Development Courses. This decision brought opportunities to develop a new civic education curriculum for higher education. It also brought the opportunity to develop a civic education curriculum that is more suitable for educating university students in the 21st Century.

In the opening address at the National Seminar on Civic Education in Institutions of Higher Education in May 2001, in Jakarta, Azyumardi Azra (2001a, 2001b) argued that the fall of President Suharto in 1998 provided the stimulus for the creation of a better social, economic, and political system. However, there had been no convincing signs that the process of transition would be successful in bringing about democracy. Instead, he suggested that Indonesia at that time was increasingly both politically and economically unstable. In part, this was because Indonesia had not yet developed a more democratic political culture, despite of the reform of political institutions. To create a civilized democracy in Indonesia, the curriculum of civic education needs to emphasize the values of democracy, human rights, and civil society.

The content of the civic education curriculum was being refined with The Decree of Directorate General of Higher Education of Indonesia Number 38/Dikti/2002 and Number 43/Dikti/Kep/2006 about The Sign of Implementation of Personality Development Courses. The Decree of 2006 stated that the mission of Personal Development Courses is to help students solidify their personality in order to consistently be able to realize the basic religious values and culture, a sense of nationalism and patriotism in a lifetime to master, apply and develop science, technology and art with the sense of responsibility. In other words, it is important for the students to have good personality as scholar candidates; thus in the future they can apply their knowledge responsibly. That is why civic education is a compulsory course for all students.

Furthermore, the Decree of Directorate General of Higher Education Number 43/Dikti/Kep/2006 stated that the basic competencies of civic education in higher education are for students to become professionals (in all fields) who have a sense of
nationhood and love of the country; who are democratic and civilized; who become citizens who have a sense of disciplined agency and who actively participate in building a peaceful life based on the value system of *Pancasila*, the state ideology of Indonesia (Mikhael et.al., 2011).

### 1.5. A Brief History of the Indonesia Open University (Universitas Terbuka)²

Indonesia Open University or Universitas Terbuka (UT) is a state university and the only higher education institution in Indonesia that teaches entirely using the distance education method. It was the 45th higher education institution established by the Government of Republic of Indonesia, in 1984. UT has been designed to be both flexible and inexpensive, focusing on serving those people who, due to various constraints, including lack of funding, living in isolated and rural areas and work, lack the opportunity to attend an institution that offers a face-to-face mode of higher education.

UT operations throughout Indonesia and overseas have been designed to involve a network of participating institutions that support its activities. This means that to ensure its effective operations, UT needs solid cooperation with partner institutions to have access to their existing resources throughout the country. At the beginning of UT’s operations, there were 32 Regional Offices (*Unit Program Belajar Jarak Jauh* or UPBJJ) established to provide student services. As of 2014, there are 39 Regional Offices (ROs) operating all over Indonesia to serve about 500,000 students.

UT’s students reside in different parts Indonesia and some overseas locations. Over 95% of these students are working adults. UT has major roles to play in developing high-caliber human resources needed for the nation’s sustainable development. Since its foundation, UT has enrolled over 1.4 million students and has produced over 700,000 alumni, working in various professional fields. Currently UT has four Faculties (Teacher Training and Educational Science; Mathematics and Natural Science; Economics; Social

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² This brief history is taken from Universitas Terbuka. (2009). Universitas Terbuka: 25 years making higher education open for all Indonesians.
and Political Sciences) with 35 Degree Programs. It also offers four graduate programs at the Master’s level: Public Administration, Management, Fisheries Management, and Mathematics Education. UT media learning resources include 962 printed learning curricula (30% supplemented with non-printed learning materials), 117 courses with radio tutorials, 419 courses with online tutorials, and 1002 televised tutorial programs. There has also been an increasing usage of multi-media learning materials.

UT’s innovation in the use of Internet-based teaching and learning can be seen as a pioneering initiative in the Indonesian higher education sector, for a substantial student segment still does not have easy access to the Internet. However, UT’s experience in developing the use of Internet in distance education might well illustrate the case wherein the use of the Internet for teaching and learning at a distance has been continually enhanced and improved such that there is a demonstrable student benefit, along with an increasing trend of use of online learning services by UT students. UT has implemented and continually improved its online services, including those designed for tutorials, web-based supplementary materials, self-exercise, examination results dissemination, online counseling, information dissemination, and online examinations. Other online services are being developed to improve teaching and learning, as well as in providing administrative services for students.

1.6. Civic Education Course and the Online Civic Education Tutorial at Universitas Terbuka

As a compulsory course in universities, the civic education course is also taught at UT. At UT, the course is managed under the Administration Science Department in the Faculty of Social and Political Sciences, and it is offered to all undergraduate students in all faculties. Civic education is a basic course; all students from all programs and faculties at UT have to take this course. Thus, in one semester approximately three thousand students are registered for civic education course.

As a distance teaching university, UT uses multimedia learning materials for its students, with printed materials as the major media, supplemented by non-printed materials. For civic education, students study the course independently at home, or
anywhere else, by reading the printed material, and at the end of semester they would be assessed in the final examination.

To help students learn the courses, UT provides learning support services in the form of tutorials. In tutorials, learning activities carried out under the guidance of tutors as facilitators. In tutorials, students and the tutors discuss the course materials that students consider difficult but very important to be understood. To provide information that deals with these difficulties, the materials covered in the tutorial activities include: essential competencies or important concepts in a course; problems found by students in the printed materials or modules; and issues related to the application of knowledge in everyday lives.3

UT provides face to face and distance tutorials. One of the forms of distance tutorials that are offered is the online tutorial.4 At UT, an online tutorial is an Internet-based tutorial that has been provided since 1999 and since 2004 has used Moodle as its learning management system. Online tutorials at UT consist of online tutorials for courses, online tutorials for the Final Assignment Program (Tugas Akhir Program/TAP) and online tutorials for Academic Writings. Activities in the online tutorial for courses include eight initiations and three tasks, and are implemented over eight weeks. Meanwhile the online tutorials for the Final Task Program include six initiations and three tasks, implemented for six weeks. In the online tutorial, students are required to actively participate in learning the initiations’ materials, contributing in discussion forums, and complete the assignments. UT does not require its students to take online tutorials, because not all students can access the Internet from their homes; not all areas of Indonesia have the Internet infrastructure, especially in remote areas.

Until the time this thesis was written, almost all courses at UT were supported by online tutorials; one of them is the Civic Education course. There are some requirements for a course to be supported with an online tutorial. One of them is that the course must be considered difficult. It was decided that the Civic Education course would be

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4 I explain about the online civic education tutorial at UT in details in Chapter 4.
supported by the online civic education tutorial because many students in the past did not have adequate grades in the course’s final examination. Therefore, the online tutorial is intended to help students better comprehend of the Civic Education course.

1.7. Statement of the Problem

Civic education courses have been taught in all levels of schooling in Indonesia for decades; however, there have been some indications from students that the civic education course is not interesting and students have not really been engaged with the course (Zuriah, 2011). This could be caused by the teachers’ approach in delivering the course, which usually draws heavily from a “transmission model,” or what Freire (2000) referred to as a “banking method.” In this method, students only receive and store the information from the teachers. They might not have opportunities for, or are afraid to ask for, a discussion with teachers. Thus, students lack motivation to learn.

Besides, in many schools in Indonesia, the indoctrination method is still applied in the teaching and learning process of civic education. Consequently, the learning principle just emphasizes “what to think,” not “how to think” (Wahab & Sapriya, 2011, p. 6). With regard to the first principle, what is to be studied has been prepared, organized, and determined by the government, which shall be submitted by the school through the teachers. The role of teachers is simply to serve as spokespersons of the government. This is so contrary to human dignities, which essentially have the freedom to think and act, even though they are still regulated by law, custom and cultural communities’ values. The second principle of “how to think,” teaches how to think critically. Teachers do not act as a spokesperson, but act as incentives for students to express thoughts and opinions (Wahab & Sapriya, 2011). Many scholars think that the second principle should be applied as a pedagogical approach to civic education. This approach will promote critical thinking, as students are encouraged to give their thoughts and opinions about the learning materials.

In addition, drawing from Bloom’s Taxonomy, Winataputra and Budimansyah (2007) asserted that one of the sources of the failure of the development of civic education in Indonesia is that the learning process is more dominated by the cognitive
domain, hence other domains such as affect and action are undermined. As well, the learning focuses on the basics of cognition such as recall, and not on the “higher order” domains of analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

The aims of civic education as a subject at school are to encourage the full participation of responsible citizens in the political life involved in the principles of constitutional democracy in Indonesia. To be able to participate effectively and responsibly in public affairs requires intellectual skills as well as participation skills; these then can be further enhanced through the development of a certain disposition or character that develops the ability of individuals to participate in the political process and in turn supports the functioning of the political system. Thus, the discourse of civic education focuses on the development of three basic components, namely: (1) civic knowledge, (2) civic skills, and (3) civic disposition (Branson & Quigley, 1998). Civic knowledge relates to the content of what citizens need to know regarding how governments at all levels function, as well as understanding their rights and responsibilities as citizens. The civic skills required for citizenship relate to a combination of knowledge and value and their use in action. Meanwhile, civic disposition implies public and private character that is important in maintaining and developing constitutional democracy, tolerance, civility, critical mindedness and loyalty to the nation state (Branson & Quigley, 1998).

The instructional goals of the Civic Education course at UT focus on students who would develop civic knowledge, civic skills and civic dispositions. When this thesis was written, I saw that the Civic Education course at UT mostly emphasized civic knowledge. In distance learning, civic knowledge can be acquired when students read the printed material of the course. However, it is not easy to teach civic skills and civic dispositions, especially when the learning sources at UT mostly are printed materials.

Through the online civic education tutorial, civic skills would be attained, because the activities of online tutorials are mostly discussions between students and tutors. Through discussions, the students are expected to learn how to practice critical thinking and have an ability to collaborate with other students in a civic fashion; that is, they will learn and come to practice the skills of dialogue that will enable collaborative learning to
occur. Those are civic skills that the tutors hope the students will acquire after they learn Civic Education. However, I saw that the pedagogy of the online civic education tutorial has not yet supported the development of civic skills and civic dispositions, especially the latter. My inquiry for this dissertation centers on this deficiency and offers a programmatic solution to the development the civic components of knowledge, skills, and dispositions.

To achieve those components, I think we need a civic education course that is modelled on a social constructivist philosophy and approach for its teaching and learning process. One of the characteristics of a social constructivist learning environment is the instructors (or experts) give attention to the students in order to provide assistance to them to accomplish difficult tasks or reach higher levels of learning that embody the development of both skill and dispositions, in addition to knowledge (Bonk & Cunningham, 1998). Nel Noddings (1992) emphasize the application of an ethic of care in relationships between teachers and students, which not only promotes intellectual development through guidance and scaffolding, but also affective development through raising motivation, building trust, and being responsive. Noddings (1992) is emphatic that the ethic of care is a skill—as well as a disposition—developed through practice; it is this kind of practice that I hope would be included in such a civic education program.

I believe that the social constructivist approach would be effective in a civic education course because it promotes a democratic teaching and learning environment (and not a program of indoctrination), where it will create creative dialogue between teacher and students and between the students themselves. This teaching and learning environment can be seen as a democratic laboratory, and as a mirror of democratic society. Thus, the program in both curriculum and pedagogical practice mirrors what we hope and expect to see in a civic society. That is why I think I would like to use it in the course of civic education. It is in this democratic laboratory that students will develop and experience their own active voice and sense of personal agency—along with the other civic skills and dispositions—which we can theorize as a dialogical development situated in the emerging identities of the students’ interactions with each other and their tutors within the online environment.
1.8. Context of the Study

Civic Education in this study is seen in the context of Indonesia, and as a course in the online tutorial at UT. Civic Education is a basic and compulsory course for all of UT’s students from all faculties. There are approximately 3000 students who take the Civic Education course in every semester. To assist students in their learning, almost all courses at UT have online tutorials, including the civic education course. Because of the large number of students who take the Civic Education course, the Computer Center Unit at UT, which facilitates the online tutorial activities at all faculties, divides the learners in the citizenship education course into several classes. Each class consists of about 300 students. UT provides several tutors to manage the large number of students. Each tutor manages one to three classes for eight weeks period of the online tutorial. In this context, I propose a pedagogical model to be based on a social constructivist approach to democratic teaching to be implemented in the online tutorial of civic education.

I situate myself as a researcher who came to this topic as a result of several influences. First, my experiences as a young student, as I outline above, drew my attention to the topic. I saw that to maintain harmonious relationships in society, people have to be tolerant and treat each other with respect. Second, my educational background in political science also influences me to choose the topic of civic education, since civic education relates to political science and educational branches of knowledge. As mentioned earlier, my original interest was in political education for women. However, after arriving at Simon Fraser University (SFU), this changed to civic education as a practical application. Third, during my course work at SFU, I became interested in the educational philosophy and curricular practice of social constructivism. I found this more compelling than the purely cognitive approaches I was exposed to during my course work at SFU; the social constructivist approach seemed more intuitively appealing and I found myself resonating with it. I am aware that my interest in and approaches to the social constructivist approach have occurred in the midst and as a result of my exposure to a learning community situated within a western university in Canada. I was never acquainted with the concept of social constructivist approach before my study at SFU,
especially considering my educational background in political science in an Indonesia university.

My research design, as well, emerged out of my experiences in my graduate studies, where I decided to take a qualitative approach. For this study, data were gathered from participants through one-on-one interviews and a focus group discussion with the instructors/tutors, administrators, and some students. The data also includes theoretical models of and research done on civic education programs, theory and research on online learning and a social constructivist approach.

1.9. Research Questions

In this study I explored the question: How can a social constructivist approach for an online civic education tutorial be implemented at Universitas Terbuka, Indonesia? From this question, I explored three specific questions as follows:

1. What is the nature of the current online civic education tutorial at Universitas Terbuka?
2. What is the rationale for changing the teaching and learning approach of the online civic education tutorial at Universitas Terbuka through a social constructivist approach?
3. How would a social constructivist approach be implemented in the teaching and learning process of the online civic education tutorial at Universitas Terbuka?

1.10. Research Methodology

My research methodology is a qualitative case study method, and is also largely based on literature reviews on civic education, the social constructivist approach, including online social constructivist approach, and distance education, supported by an analysis of primary data collected from interviews with the following research subjects:

- Instructors and tutors of the online civic education course at Universitas Terbuka,
- Students who had taken the online tutorial of civic education course at Universitas Terbuka,
• An assistant of the Vice Rector of Academic affairs at Universitas Terbuka,
• An assistant of the Vice Rector of Student Affairs at Universitas Terbuka,
• The Chairman of the Administration Studies Department at the Faculty of Social and Political Sciences at Universitas Terbuka.

The data drawn from the interviews serve to complement the analysis of the literature review and illustrate certain parts of my arguments for using a social constructivist approach in the online civic education tutorial. In accordance with the regulation of the Human Research Ethics Committee at Simon Fraser University, the names of the participants or any identifying information will not be revealed.

1.11. Significance of the Study

Many studies worldwide have investigated civic education in various dimensions, but very few of them have documented civic education with a social constructivist approach as its pedagogical approach, especially in an online civic education in Indonesia and at Universitas Terbuka. Therefore, from a theoretical perspective this study offers a significant contribution to the existing knowledge on how to teach civic education in an online environment using an alternative pedagogical approach. From a practical point of view, this study is intended to promote the value of constructivist instruction with respect to raising cognitive development and academic achievement in individual students at Universitas Terbuka, Indonesia.

1.12. Organization of the Thesis

This thesis comprises six chapters, followed by a reference list and appendix(es). Chapters one presents an overview of the study. Chapter two presents a review of the related literature. Chapter three describes the methodological procedures. Chapter four explains the findings from the data interviews. Chapter five presents the analysis and discussion of the research findings. Chapter six draws conclusions for the study, also discusses implications and recommendations.
To be more specific, chapter one introduces some contextual information about Indonesia and civic education in Indonesia together with the history of Universitas Terbuka. It also introduces the main research question, subsidiary questions, the significance of the study, and this section on the organizational framework of the study.

Chapter two examines the scholarly and other literature that supports the rationale for the research. In particular, this review focuses on the concept and tradition of citizenship, the concept of civic education, critical thinking, the history and concepts of distance education, adult learner, the social constructivist theory of learning, as well as the theory of an online social constructivist approach. The review also examines case studies from previous research about the applicability of a social constructivist approach to teaching and learning processes, particularly, in civic education courses.

Chapter three presents the methodological procedures in this study. It includes the discussion of the particular qualitative approach I have undertaken and the rationale for that approach, the selection of participants, the procedures of data collection, including the interview technique, and kind of and rationale for data analysis I have used. This chapter closes with a consideration of the ethical dimensions of the study.

Chapter four discusses the findings from the interviews with the participants: the students, tutors of the online civic education tutorial, and administrators who are involved in the policy making of online tutorials. The interviews are about the participants’ opinions, experiences and critiques about the online civic education tutorial.

Chapter five presents the analysis from the interview and literature review which is the rationale for the changing of the online civic education tutorial at Universitas Terbuka. The chapter also proposes a model of online civic education tutorial for Universitas Terbuka based on a social constructivist approach to a democratic teaching.

Chapter six discusses the conclusions, implications, and recommendations. The conclusions summarize the findings and analysis. Meanwhile, the implications explain the consequences of the proposed model for the students, tutors and administrators of the online civic education tutorial at Universitas Terbuka. The chapter then provides some suggestions for Universitas Tebuka if the proposed model will be implemented,
followed by limitations of the study. This chapter closes with recommendations for further research.
Chapter 2.

Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature that grounds the concepts and research of citizenship, civic education, critical thinking, distance education, adult learner, social constructivism and democratic teaching. The chapter consists of several sections. The first section consists of literature examining the concepts and traditions of citizenship. The second section explores the literature on the concept of civic education. The third section describes the concept of critical thinking. The fourth section explains the history of distance education from correspondence study to the computer and Internet age in terms of teaching and learning processes. The fifth section discusses the education of adult learners. The sixth section discusses the concepts of constructivism, including social constructivism, online social constructivism, and the study of civic education using social constructivist learning approaches. Then, the final section discusses democratic teaching in civic education.

2.2. Concepts and Traditions of Citizenship

What is citizenship? Historically, the concept of citizenship can be traced from ancient times. The ideas of citizenship and civic education have roots in the democracy of the ancient Greek and in the republican governments of ancient Rome. Held (1996) purported that Athenian democracy was similar to republican Rome in that they both were face-to-face societies and oral cultures that encouraged popular participation in government affairs, with little centralized bureaucratic control. Aristotle (384-322 BC) offered an early conception of citizenship in his book, *Politics*. But while Aristotle
provided us with the ‘cues’ of citizenship, he did not provide a single definition of citizenship. He declared that, “there is no general agreement on a single definition” (Aristotle, 1948, 1275a). He explained the peripheral categories for the search of a universally acceptable working definition. These include: “those resident aliens who have right of access to state’s courts; disenfranchised citizens; the young who are undeveloped citizens; and the old, who are superannuated” (Heater, 2004, p. 17).

Aristotle (1948) was exceptionally interested in the modes of participation that make a citizen a citizen. He asserted:

Citizens, in the common sense of the term, are all who share in the civic life of ruling and being ruled in turn. In the particular sense of the term, they vary from constitution; and under an ideal constitution they must be those who are able and willing to rule with a view to attaining a way of life according to goodness (1283b).

Despite the similarities between Greek and Rome in democracy, the major difference in citizenship was that Greek citizenship was principally a political concept with both moral and legal aspects, while Roman citizenship included purely legal matters (Kalidjernih, 2005). The traditions of citizenship in Greek and Roman societies inspired the concepts of common welfare and civic virtues that re-emerged in Europe in resistance to the autocratic power of monarchs and with the growing power of the urban middle classes (Kalidjernih, 2005). These concepts nourished and were nourished by the Protestant Reformation in 17th Century Europe, and at the Age of Enlightenment, they gave shape to contemporary constitutional democracy, liberalism, republicanism, humanism, and modernity (Kalidjernih, 2005).

The early modern concept of democratic citizenship developed from the notion of the ‘social contract’ and the thinking of Thomas Hobbes and John Locke that saw human beings as fundamentally self-rewarding and self-interested, and human associations as necessary evils. Individual and group interests necessary clash, but could, with effort, be civilly accommodated (Pratte, 1988, p. 27). Thomas Hobbes saw unified sovereignty as standing above civil society, and its self-interested subjects accepting the bounds of state for peace and protection they brought (Ray, 1999). In his book, Second Treatise on Civil Government, John Locke suggested a different version of the social contract, stated
that civil society was not subject to the sovereign state, but constrained it (Kalidjernih, 2005).

Another philosopher, Jean Jacques Rousseau, proposed the concept of social contract that would nurture better people and liberate them from the undue bonds of government (Kalidjernih, 2005). In his famous book, Social Contract, Rousseau stated that “man is born free, and yet we see him everywhere in chains” (Rousseau, 1762/1947, p. 5). However, other scholars, such as John Stuart Mills and Jeremy Bentham argued that natural right and the social contract “failed to explain the real basis of citizens’ interests, commitment and duty to the state” (Held, 1996, p. 94). In other words, “the values of liberalism focused on privatised self and encouraged citizens to scramble to obtain the good and services of society first, before another individual group seized them” (Pratte, 1988, p. 51).

The contemporary concepts of citizenship in Western democracy can be divided into three types: liberalism, republicanism, and communitarianism (Isin & Turner, 2002). The emphasis of liberalism is individual and most rights involve liberties that adhere to each and every person. The predominance of liberal values remains in individuals’ freedom to pursue their own good. Liberal theories promote the idea that citizenship is a status, which entitles individuals to a specific set of universal rights granted by the state. The core of liberal thought is the notion that individual citizens act rationally to advance their own interests, and that the role of the state is to protect citizens in the exercise of their rights (Oldfield, 1990, p. 2). Every individual citizen is granted the same formal rights and this is understood as promoting equality. Exercising rights is seen as the choice of citizens, on assumption that they have necessary resources and opportunities (Isin & Wood, 1999, p. 7). The liberal tradition has reworked by social-liberal theorists, such as John Rawls (1971) and T.H. Marshall (1992), as well as neo-liberal theorists. The social-liberal theorists are concerned with social inequality in societies, drawing examples from capitalist countries. Meanwhile, the neo-liberal theorists suppress the political world as much as possible in order to allow the individual the maximum amount of freedom. They particularly opposed to the welfare state and in favor of the free market (Voet, 1998, p. 10).
To understand what is distinctive about republicanism, one can examine the implications republicans draw from publicity (Dagger, 2002). The implications are that politics, as the public’s business, must be conducted openly in public and the public is not only a group of people but an aspect or sphere of life with its own claims and considerations. In addition, as members of the public, people must be prepared to overcome their private interests when necessary to do what is best for the public as a whole. Therefore, a good citizen is a public-spirited person who places the interests of the community ahead of personal interests. Citizenship is a matter of responsibilities as much as rights and the good citizen will discharge these responsibilities when called upon to do so (Dagger, 2002).

Citizenship in republican point of view requires commitment to the common good and active participation in public affairs. It requires civic virtue (Dagger, 2002). Civic republican theory considers participation in decision-making in the public life as the essence of the civic bond, not merely rights and duties. It places social responsibility on civil society rather than the state, believing that cultural traditions and not state institutions reinforce civil society (Kalidjernih, 2005).

Meanwhile, communitarianism emphasizes “the community (or the society or the nation), whose primary concern is with the cohesive and just functioning of society” (Isin & Turner, 2002, pp. 3-4). Communitarian thought center on the idea of the “socially embedded citizen and community belonging” (Smith, 1998, p. 117). For this tradition, citizenship is defined through, and is seen to develop, particular “civic virtues,” such as respect for others and recognition of the importance of public service (Smith, 1998, p. 118). Communitarians asserted the group as the defining center of identity and that all individuals imagine themselves only in relation to the larger community as the basis of common ground (Isin & Wood, 1999, p. 2).

In Western traditions, the conceptual dimensions of citizenship include: citizenship as a legal status, an administrative category, and a political practice (Stokes, 2008; Isin & Turner, 2002). As a legal status, people have to be a member of political community, in which they have access to certain resources, such as legal, material, and symbolic. Without this status, people are denied to have certain rights and in the same
time do not have to take some public responsibilities (Stokes, 2008). Citizenship is also an administrative category in which “those individuals accorded the legal status of citizenship are ranked and ordered, and various rights, responsibilities and resources allocated to them” (Stokes, 2008, p. 86). As a political practice, citizenship is also a political practice, or a mode participation in public life. That is, citizenship is not so much defined by law as by how one conducts oneself in public affairs and in politics (Stokes, 2008).

In Indonesia, the main concepts that shape the practice of citizenship and have served as the guidelines of civic education for over the decades are *Pancasila*, Negara Integralistik (Integral State) and 1945 Constitution (Kalidjernih, 2005). These concepts were proposed and discussed by the Investigating Committee for Preparatory Work for Indonesian Independence (Badan Penyelidik Usaha Persiapan Kemerdekaan Indonesia or BPUPKI), which was appointed by the Japanese at the end of their occupation of Indonesia in 1945 (Kalidjernih, 2005).

*Pancasila* is the ideology and the foundation of Republic of Indonesia. It includes five principles. Indonesia is a multicultural nation and *Pancasila* serves as the basis of the unity of Indonesia. The values of *Pancasila* are claimed to derive from traditional values of *gotong-royong* (mutual co-operation), *musyawarah dalam mufakat* (consensus), and *tenggang rasa* (mutual-understanding) (Kalidjernih, 2005). The five principles of *Pancasila* are:

1. Belief in the One and Only God;
2. A Just and Civilized Humanity;
3. The Unity of Indonesia;
4. Democracy Guided by the Inner Wisdom of Deliberations of Representatives; and
5. Social Justice for All the Indonesian People.

As the only ideological principle, all Indonesian citizens, social and political organizations and the state itself are required to base their activities on *Pancasila* (Kalidjernih, 2005).

The second concept is the notion of *Negara Integralistik* (Integral State). To prepare Indonesia independence, the Investigating Committee for Preparatory Work for
Indonesian Independence discussed about the foundation of the state they would like to implement for independent Indonesia. One of the committee, Supomo, proposed the idea of the *Negara Integralistik*. In his speech, he discussed three schools of thought about the state to compare and question which was to be adopted (Yamin, 1959, pp. 109-121; Kalidjernih, 2005).

The first schools of thought considered for the state were based on individualism as proposed by Thomas Hobbes, John Locke, Jean Jacques Rousseau, Herbert Spenser, and H.J. Laski. The state in this theory is viewed as a legal society based on a social contract among individuals in that society, and such a legal society could be found in Europe and North America (Kalidjernih, 2005).

The second school of thought that was considered was a theory of class conflict proposed by Karl Marx, Engels, and Lenin. The state in this theory was seen as a repressive apparatus used by the economically strong to dominate the weak, and capitalistic state as an apparatus of the bourgeoisie to repress worker. Marxists advocate political revolution by the workers to capture the state power and suppress the bourgeoisie (Kalidjernih, 2005).

The third school of thought that was considered was *teori integralistik* (integral theory) proposed by Baruch De Spinoza, Adam Muller, Georg Willem Friedrich Hegel, and other 18th and 19th Century thinkers. The state according to this theory is functioned not to oversee an individual or a group of people’s interest, but to look after the interests of the whole society as whole. Thus *Negara Integralistik* is an integral system of society in which all components, parts and members of the people are interconnected, forming a unity or an organic society. The interests of the nation as a whole take priority over those of any individual. The state oversees the life and security of the whole and indivisible nation (Kalidjernih, 2005).

Among the theories being considered, Supomo suggested to choose the integral theory. He rejected individualism and the dictatorship of the proletariat in Europe. He suggested seeing the Indonesia state as a living organism, whose “political development should conform to the people’s contemporary ‘visible’ social structure, and should be in accord with its historical context” (Kalidjernih, 2005). Supomo argued that the principle of
the unity between the leader and the people as well as of the whole state is consistent with Eastern cultures. Also, he argued that individuals are inseparable from one another, in the same way that all living organism are interconnected (Kalidjernih, 2005).

The concept of the Negara Integralistik (Integral State) has similar elements with classical republicanism and the Javanese concept of ‘manunggaling kawula gusti’ (unity between master and servant, sovereign and subject) (Kalidjernih, 2005). In republicanism, citizenship is viewed as a public thing (res publica), and “people will be likely to put the common interest ahead of their own” (Dagger, 2002, p. 155). This strong emphasis on a sense of community and duties and on common interest rather than individual freedom is what Sukarno (the Founding Father and the first President of the Republic of Indonesia) and Supomo argued to be the most appropriate values for the new state (Kalidjernih, 2005). The Negara Integralistik (integral State) as proposed by Adam Muller should be considered as an organism state. Muller’s ideal of the state is strong central authority that can look after the common people in carrying out their duties (Magnis-Suseno, 1992). This closely resembles the public enterprise of republicanism. Both the Javanese concept of “manunggaling kawula gusti” and the Negara Integralistik (Integral State) stress the close relationship between the sovereign (the ruling elite or the state) and the common people, and focus on the supremacy of the state (God or the king as representation of God) that encompasses the universe and human being as a unity (Kalidjernih, 2005).

Other Indonesian leaders at that time were concerned that Negara Integralistik (Integral State) proposed by Supomo as being consisted with Eastern qualities might lead to a repressive state which supress freedom of speech. The debate between proponents of individual rights and those supporting the Negara Integralistik (Integral State) was critical to formulating the principles of the 1945 Constitution, particularly in relation to the inclusion or otherwise of provisions for individual human rights. The result was that the notion of Negara Integralistik (Integral State), that suggesting an absolute power of the state over the people, does not appear in the 1945 Constitution (Kalidjernih, 2005). Instead, Article 1, Section 2 of the Constitution stated that ‘Sovereignty shall be vested in the people and shall be fully exercised by them through the medium of the people’s congress’ (Yamin, 1959, p. 49).
The theories of the state and society, such as liberalism, republicanism, communitarianism, socialism and communism (Marxism) were considered and compared before some fundamental aspects of them, notably republicanism were modified and adopted by the ruling elite in the new Indonesia state. The reluctant state ideology and national constitution explicitly rejected individual liberalism and Marxism-Leninism communism, but emphasized the theory of the organic state or *Negara Integralistik* (Integral State). These key political ideas were adopted as the basis for Indonesian civic education in the succeeding decades (Kalidjernih, 2005).

The 1945 Constitution was ratified on 18 August 1945, a day after Indonesia’s Proclamation of independent (Kalidjernih, 2005). The body of the 1945 Constitution contains sixteen chapters consisting thirty-seven articles, with a preamble, a clarification of each article, four sections of the provisions affecting the interregnum and two sections of the additional regulations (*aturan tambahan* and *aturan peralihan*) (Yamin, 1959; BP-7 Pusat, 1990; Kalidjernih, 2005). The preamble incorporates the principles of *Pancasila*. It also defines Indonesia as a state based on the rule of law (*rechtsstaat*). Among its sixteen chapters, the chapter 10 elucidates about citizenship. It consists of three articles, as follows:

**Article 26**

(1) Citizen shall be native-born Indonesians, and those who take out naturalisation papers.

(2) Matters affecting citizenship shall be provided by law.

**Article 27**

(1) All citizens shall have the same status in law and in the government and shall, without exception, respect the law and government.

(2) Every citizen shall have the right to work and to respect a reasonable standard of living.

**Article 28**

(1) Freedom of assembly and the right to form unions, freedom of speech and the press and similar freedoms shall be provided by law
Beyond chapter 10, which explicitly discusses citizenship, other articles are also relevant to the rights and responsibilities of Indonesian citizens, such as Article 29 (on religion), Article 30 (on defence and security), Article 31 and 32 (on education), Article 33 and 34 (on social welfare) (Kalidjernih, 2005).

2.3. Concepts of Civic Education

Cogan (1998) described civic education as “the contribution of education to the development of those characteristics of being a citizen” (p. 13). Another scholar described it as “the process of teaching society's rules, institutions, and organizations, and the role of citizens in the well-functioning of society” (Villegas-Reimer, 1997, p. 235).

Civic training does not only occur at school as a subject in the class room. Parental and home influences and experiences outside the class also contribute to students' learning. Civic education also can exist in the form of a wide range of formal, informal, and non-formal training. This encourages and informs participation by citizens in community activities and public affairs (Civic Expert Group, 1994).

From country to country, the practice of civic education varies; with most countries do not treat it as a separate school subject. Civic education mostly has been locally contextualised and taught as an element of subjects such as geography, history, social studies, and moral and religious values (Kalidjernih, 2005). For Indonesia, civic education is treated as a separate school subject. From primary school until university level, civic education is a compulsory subject in the curriculum.

Civic education cannot stand alone. It is constructed by cultural norms, political priorities, social expectations, national economic development aspirations, geopolitical contexts and historical antecedents (Kennedy, 2004). Therefore, the conceptions of citizenship and civic education vary among countries and democracy traditions. These various perspectives on citizenship have significantly varying implications for curriculum of civic education (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004).
In Western democracy, generally speaking, two traditions exist within citizenship that relates to civic education: civic republican and liberal traditions. The civic republican primarily relates to responsibilities exercised in public contexts (Davies & Pitt, 2010) and the development and practice of civic virtue (Dagger, 1997). The main focus of civic republican theory is the notion that citizens are being responsible. This resonates with curricular approaches to civic education that center on the concept of citizenship as rooted in responsibilities and the expression of civic virtue. Students are taught about their responsibilities, and also are provided with opportunities to take responsibility in an informed way (Peterson, 2011). For civic republican theory, civic responsibilities or civic obligations do not stand alone from other aspects of citizens' lives. They are encouraged to become involved and engaged in the political life of their communities. According to civic republican theory, there is an important and necessary public life beyond private interests. This public life is one characterized by practice, deliberation and an interest in the common good of the political community (Peterson, 2011).

In education, civic republican theory inculcates an awareness and commitment to social and moral responsibility within young people. The elements of civic education in this tradition bring together civic knowledge and service. Therefore, some civic education programs require a sense of service to community in the social sense, such as the activities of charity and philanthropy, or in the political sense, such as affecting the decision-making process in the civic realm (Peterson, 2011).

The civic republican also perceives a form of politics that allow citizens to deliberate with each other on matters of public importance (Peterson, 2011). The republican sees this form as an effective political system in which citizens and the state learn about each other's interests through dialogue in public forums. Further, through engagement in public dialogue, citizens can interact with and influence those who hold power. Finally, public decisions that have been made based on citizens' perspectives and deliberations are seen to be legitimate (Peterson, 2011).

In civic education based on the republican tradition, deliberative practice is a primary feature. Students are encouraged to use dialogue in order to develop their own particular point of view and to hear others' points of view. In this practice, civic educators
have to foster some capacities in the students, such as empathy and reflection. Also, for the civic republican tradition, dialogue and debate should be considered as a collective and cooperative process rather than competition between individuals (Peterson, 2011).

Meanwhile, the liberal tradition principally relates to the rights of individuals in private context and personal autonomy (Davies & Pitt, 2010; Dagger, 1997). Liberal citizens might be expected to emphasize their rights to make decisions about resources that they see as being earned through their own enterprise (Davies & Pitt, 2010). Liberal theories of civic education argue that certain values are important to the survival of the modern democratic state. Those values are mutual respect, reasonableness, civility, and tolerance, which are essential for citizens to participate fully in a multicultural and diverse society (Maynor, 2003; De Wijze, 1999). In liberal civic education’s view, the state has reasons to promote certain values that contribute to the virtues of good citizenship (Maynor, 2003).

There are some theorists who put forth a conception of civic education based on the liberal tradition. For instance, Amy Gutmann (1995) believes that the liberal state must teach the citizens certain liberal values, such as individuality and autonomy. These values will help to support the continuity of the state and secure liberty and aid the development of the self. Regarding mutual respect, Gutmann (1995) argued that it will expose individuals to different ways of life and give them the necessary tools to evaluate their own choices when it comes to making personal decisions about conceptions of the good.

From the studies in Asia and the Pacific countries, such as China, Hong Kong, Korea, Japan, Malaysia, Singapore, and Indonesia, Lee (2004) identifies three features that emphasize civic education in those countries, namely harmony, spirituality and individuality or self-cultivation. Harmony is a major feature of citizenship in the Asian context. It is a fundamental philosophy of life, in term of relations with universe and with one another in society (Lee, 2004).

Meanwhile, spirituality is the major difference between Asia and the West in conceptualizing citizenship. In the West the main concern is rights and responsibilities of
citizens. Meanwhile in Asia, it is the person’s quality; spirituality is characterized by an emphasis on the state of one’s inner life (Lee, 2004).

For individuality or self-cultivation, Lee (2004) argued that individuals are important in Asian citizenship. This importance can be seen in two ways: first, a harmonious relationship between the individual and the community; and second, the individual in term of individuality (rather than individualism as it is in the West). The emphasis of individuality is on quality of the inner being (in term of spirituality) and the development of individual character (Lee, 2004). Self-cultivation is the emphasis of citizenship in countries whose political and social structures are influenced by Confucian traditions, such as China, Taiwan, Japan, and Korea (Lee, 2004). Self-cultivation, as promoted in civics in China, is related to development of moral disposition and behaviors (Lee, 2004). In Korea, self-cultivation refers to the linkage of the human and the divine, and to the deepening of self-awareness (Lee, 2004).

Some scholars map out the fundamental components of civic education as a means of conceptualizing it. For instance, Cogan (1998) identified five citizenship attributes that might be different in each country, depending on their political systems, namely: “sense of identity; the enjoyment of certain rights; the fulfillment of corresponding obligations; a degree of interest and involvement in public affairs; and an acceptance of basic societal values” (pp. 2-3).

The Center of Citizenship Education of the United States of America has proposed the three components of civic knowledge, civic skills and civic dispositions as the fundamentals of civic education (Branson & Quigley, 1998). Civic knowledge relates to the content of what citizens need to know and use to become effective and responsible citizen of democracy. It includes the knowledge about civic life, the types, systems, and functions of governments at all levels, politics, political institutions and processes, the roles of the citizen in relation to governance in democratic nation, democracy, human rights, as well as understanding the rights and responsibilities of citizens (Branson, 1998).

The civic skills required for citizenship relate to a combination of knowledge, value, and their application in action. The skills include the intellectual civic skills and
participatory skills. Intellectual civic skills are essential for informed, effective, and responsible citizens. These skills sometime are called critical thinking (Branson, 1998). Intellectual skills in civics encompass knowing how to identify, assess, interpret, describe, explain, compare, analyze, and evaluate various principles and practice of government and civic life.

Meanwhile, participatory skills are the skills that are required for informed, effective, and responsible participation in the political process and civil society. Participatory skills enable citizens to interact, monitor and influence public policies (Branson & Quigley, 1998). Interacting skills are those skills that involve communication and cooperative work from citizens; these skills also involve being responsive to other citizens. In addition, interaction includes questioning, answering, deliberating with civility, and managing conflict fairly and peacefully. Monitoring politics and government skills are the skills where citizens need to be aware or develop awareness about issues in the governmental and political processes; they include how citizens can function as “watchdogs” toward government. Finally, influencing skills refer to the capacity to affect the processes of politics and governance in formal and informal processes in the community, such as voting, engaging in public discussions, or working to support a candidate or political party (Branson, 1998).

Civic virtues consist of the trait of characters, dispositions and commitments necessary for the preservation and improvement of democratic governance and citizenship. Civic dispositions develop slowly over time and as a result of what an individual learns and practices in the home, school, community, and organizations of civil society (Branson, 1998). Civic disposition implies public and private character that is essential in maintaining and developing constitutional democracy (Branson & Quigley, 1998). Traits of private character include moral responsibility, self-discipline, as well respect for the worth and human dignity of every individual. Traits of public character include public spiritedness, respect for the rule of law, willingness to listen, negotiate, and compromise, tolerance, civility, critical mindedness and loyalty to the nation state (Branson, 1998).
For Indonesia, the character of civic education is the same with the characteristic of Indonesian citizenship that is based on the state’s ideology and constitution: Negara Integralistik, Pancasila and the 1945 Constitution. Civic education in higher education is aimed at fostering awareness of defending the country: a comprehensive, integrative way of thinking designed to develop national resilience for survival and an all-round prosperity of the Indonesian nation. Awareness includes the love of homeland, a national consciousness, the state and society, belief in the truth of the philosophy of Pancasila and the Indonesian state laws, and a willingness to sacrifice for the nation and the country of Indonesia.

In addition, some scholars also asserted that the purpose of civic education in Indonesia is to (a) develop quality participatory skills and accountability in political and social life at the regional, national and global levels, (b) develop a good citizen and be able to maintain the unity and integrity of the nation in order to make a strong, prosperous and democratic Indonesia; (c) produce students who think comprehensively, analytically, critically and who act democratically; (d) developing a democratic culture that is based in and promotes freedom, equality, tolerance, restraint capabilities, the ability to engage in dialogue, negotiation, decision-making capabilities, and the ability to participate in political and social activities; and (e) assist students through education to become good, responsible citizens who are able to solve civic problems (Hamidi & Lutfi, 2010, p. 80).

2.4. Critical Thinking

A range of views and definitions of critical thinking exist in the literature. Scholars of critical thinking draw their works mainly from two traditions: philosophy and psychology (Gibson, 1995). From a philosophical point of view, critical thinking is focused on “the norms of good thinking, the rational aspect of human thought, and on the intellectual virtues needed to approach the world in a reasonable, fair-minded way” (p. 28). Meanwhile, psychological tradition conceptualizes critical thinking primarily as higher-order thinking processes and focuses attention on the appropriate learning and instruction processes (Gibson, 2005; ten Dam & Volman, 2004).
Various scholars in the critical thinking tradition have come to recognize that, besides learning content and skills of critical thinking, learners should develop the dispositions to look at the world through a critical lens. Therefore, the critical person not only has the disposition and skills to seek reasons, truth, and evidence, but also the drive to seek them (Burbules & Berk, 1999). For example, Ennis (1991) defined critical thinking as “reasonable reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do” (1991, p. 6). He argued that a critical person should have not only a tendency to seek reasons and try to be well informed, but also to persist in finding the truth. Further, Ennis (1991) stated that critical thinking includes such acts as “formulating hypotheses, alternative ways of viewing a problem, questions, possible solutions, and plans for investigating something” (p. 6). In his definition, Ennis distinguished between skills and dispositions. The skills include: analyzing arguments, judging credibility of sources, identifying the focus of the issue, and answering and asking clarifying and/or challenging questions. The dispositions include being prepared and determined to maintain focus on the problem at hand, willing to take the whole situation into account and being prepared to seek and offer reasons and being amenable to being well informed, willing to look for alternatives, and withholding judgment when evidence and reasons are insufficient (Ennis, 1987, 1991; Kennedy, Fisher, & Ennis, 1991).

Other scholars, such as Paul and Elder (2012, p. xix) defined critical thinking as “the art of thinking about thinking while thinking to make thinking better. It involves three interwoven phases: it analyzes thinking, it evaluates thinking, and it improves thinking.” Paul and Elder (2008) further defined critical thinking as “self-directed, self-disciplined, self-monitored and self-corrective” (p. 2). They asserted that a critical thinker is a person who raises vital questions and problems, formulating them clearly and precisely; gathers and assesses relevant information, using abstract ideas to interpret it effectively; comes to well-reasoned conclusions and solutions, testing them against relevant criteria and standards; thinks open-mindedly within alternative systems of thought, recognizing and assessing, as need be, their assumptions, implications, and practical consequences; and communicates effectively with others in figuring out solutions to complex problems (Paul & Elder, 2008).
Paul (1994) also agrees that critical thinking involves skills and dispositions. Paul broadened the concept of critical thinking by expanding it from the idea of a set of skills to cite it as a major aspect of individual character. Paul (1994) stresses the distinction between skills and dispositions in his distinction between weak-sense and strong-sense critical thinking. The weak-sense means that one has learned the skills and can demonstrate them when asked to do so; meanwhile, the strong-sense means that one has incorporated these skills into a way of living in which one’s own assumptions are re-examined and questioned as well. According to Paul (1994), a critical thinker in the strong sense has a passionate drive for clarity, accuracy, and fair-mindedness. For Paul (1992), dispositions are an essential part of critical thinking. A critical person, according to him, needs to be open-minded as well as to foster dialogue and be considerate of other people and perspectives.

In psychological points of view, some scholars refer to critical thinking as higher order cognitive skills, and go back to Bloom’s work of taxonomy (e.g., Halpern, 1998; Kennedy et al., 1991). Bloom includes thinking skills related to critical thinking in his taxonomy of educational objectives (ten Dam & Volman, 2004). Critical thinking or higher-order thinking skills are often associated with analysis, synthesis and/or evaluation, in contrast to lower-order thinking skills with a focus on knowledge, comprehension and/or application. For instance, Halpern (1998) offers taxonomy of critical thinking skills including skills in verbal-reasoning, argument-analysis, decision-making, and problem-solving.

Researchers argue that critical thinking is teachable, though there are different perspectives on whether critical thinking is in some sense generic and can be taught generically, or whether it exists and can be taught only within specific subject areas and disciplines (Gibson, 1995). For instance, Brown (1997) points out that in order to develop students’ critical thinking, we have to engage them in serious learning about meaningful, rich, domain-specific subject-matter. Other researchers, such as Perkins and Salomon (1989), offered mixed evidence for both the generic and subject-specific models of critical thinking. For Perkins and Salomon, both models have strengths and weaknesses and they suggested combining the advantages of both.
Various instructional strategies are suggested for developing critical thinking. Some studies that focus on secondary and higher education suggest that discussion and dialogue play a key role in enhancing critical thinking (see Commeyras, 1993; ten Dam & Volman, 2004). Dennick and Exley (1998) propose several methods, such as focused discussion, student-led seminars, problem-based learning, and role playing as key instructional strategies. Other interventions that are suggested for scaffolding critical thinking skills, include group debate, peer assessment, Socratic questioning, and online discussion (see Shu & Chung, 2009). Brown (1997) believes that critical thinking should be taught within specific-subject areas and highlights the essence of using real-life problems in discussions, because those are supposed to motivate and stimulate students’ active involvement. Real-life problems are also the kind of complex problems for which critical thinking is needed (ten Dam & Volman, 2004; also see Halpern, 1998; Kennedy et al., 1991).

In regard to the ‘rationalistic’ foundations of the epistemology of critical thinking, it is argued that critical thinking excludes such forms of verification, such as experience, emotion and feeling because it is primarily focused on logical thinking (see Burbules & Berk, 1999). Furthermore, the rationalistic basis of critical thinking seems inconsistent with “women ways of knowing” (cf. Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986; Severiens & ten Dam, 1998; ten Dam & Volman, 2004). Based on arguments about masculine perspectives on critical thinking, ten Dam and Volman (2004) argue that, in addition to logical thinking, students should be taught critical thinking. For ten Dam and Volman (2004), citizens require not only being able to think critically and politically, but also manifest a caring attitude, empathy and commitment in a democratic society. As a consequence, instructional designs should not capitalize on applying tricks of arguing, but contribute to the readiness of students to participate in a meaningful and critical way in real social activities (ten Dam & Volman, 2004).

Cultivating critical thinking is essential to citizenship in the 21st Century (Shu & Chung, 2009). It is a crucial competence required by citizens to participate in a modern, democratic society, since critical thinking enables citizens to make their own contribution to society in a critical and aware manner (ten Dam & Volman, 2004). In a democratic society, an educated citizenry values critical and reflective thinking regarding the nature
and functioning of democracy as well as rational analysis as a basis for advancing ideas and solving social problems (Shu & Chung, 2009). Cogan (1999) offered numerous possible characteristics of citizenship necessary for the 21st Century. The characteristics relating to critical thinking include an ability to understand, accept, and tolerate cultural differences, a capacity to think critically and systematically, and a willingness to resolve conflict non-violently.

Civic education might be helpful for the development of critical thinking. A study from Shu and Chung (2009) examined how cultivating critical skills in civic education affect the critical thinking skills and disposition of Taiwanese junior high school students. This study used equivalent pre-test and post-test group design in 10-week experiment. The experimental group was taught using critical thinking instruction in civic education based on Richard Paul's model of critical thinking, while the control group was not taught with any critical thinking program. This study concluded that explicitly integrating the Paul model of critical thinking in the civic education course content can provide an effective method of eliciting critical thinking abilities and dispositions desired of high school-level students.

Critical thinking is one of the civic skills, and it is important for citizens to retain critical thinking in order to participate actively in a modern democratic nation. Critical thinking can be taught and developed in a specific-subject matter through certain instructional strategies, such as collaborative discussion activities. In this study, it is hoped that UT’s students could learn about critical thinking and learn to think critically through a social constructivist learning approach with a democratic teaching model guiding the online civic education tutorial.

2.5. The Development of Distance Education

The definition of distance education or distance learning may be seen in different ways, although the terms often used interchangeably. Distance education is generally used to refer to pedagogical practice while distance learning is used to refer to students’ learning (Tolu & Evans, 2013). Keegan (1995) relates distance education to not having an obligation to go to “a fixed place, at a fixed time, to meet a fixed person, in order to be
trained” (p. 7). In a more complex way, Schlosser and Simonson (2006) define distance education as “institution-based, formal education where the learning group is separated and where interactive communications systems are used to connect learners, resources, and instructors” (p. 1). Other definitions of distance education have been reviewed by researchers. Tolu and Evans (2013, p. 46) found that the recurring themes in distance education include (a) place referring to physical distance between learner and teacher and it can take place anywhere when necessary hardware/software is available, (b) time (synchronous and asynchronous), (c) path (wide range of paths to reach objectives), and (d) pace (students are flexible in deciding their own pace to some extent).

Distance education has evolved with the developments of technology and their impact on instructional technology (Tolu & Evans, 2013). It has evolved for more than a century and through several historical generations (Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Schlosser & Simson, 2006). The history of distance education is generally categorized according to the media or medium used (Tolu & Evans, 2013). For instance, some scholars disclosed that distance education has evolved through three generations (Peters, 2008) while others suggested that it has grown through five generations (Moore & Kearsley, 2012).

Moore and Kearsley explained the five generations of distance education as follows: the first generation began in the early 1880s with correspondence study, where the medium of communication was text and the instructions was by postal correspondence. The second generation was the medium of teaching developed to use broadcasts through radio and television in the early 1920s. The third generation was characterized by the invention of a new way of organizing education, most notably in the Open Universities in the early 1970s. The fourth generation was the first experience of real time group interaction at a distance, in audio and video teleconference courses delivered by telephone, satellite, cable, and computer networks. The fifth generation involved teaching and learning online in virtual classes and universities, based on Internet technologies. There is no linear progression in this order of phases of distance education history. Each new generation improved the quality of two fundamental elements of distance education, namely subject matter presentation and student-instructor interaction. The previous generation is not eliminated by the proceeding
generation’s systems (Tolu & Evans, 2013). I will now elaborate on each of these generations of distance education.

2.5.1. Correspondence Study

The evidence of the earliest efforts in distance education occurs as early as 1833 in the form of correspondence study. An advertisement in a Swedish newspaper promoted the opportunity to study composition through the postal service, where the courses of instruction were delivered by mail (Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, & Zvacek, 2012; Moore & Kearsley, 2012). The correspondence approach was also referred to as “home study” or “independent study” (Moore & Kearsley, 2012, p. 23). After that, more correspondence study programs were established around North America and Europe. In 1840, Isaac Pitman was allowed by England’s penny post to offer shorthand instruction through correspondence. Then, a form of correspondence study was also established in Germany in 1873 to teach language in Berlin (Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, & Zvacek, 2012). The development of correspondence study continued when academic degrees were authorized by the state of New York from 1883 to 1891 through the Chautauqua College of Liberal Arts to students who completed the summer institutes and correspondence course. This was followed by the offering of correspondence courses in mining and prevention of mining accidents in Pennsylvania in 1891. A distance teaching organization was established in Sweden where H.S. Hermond began teaching English by correspondence in 1886 and founded Hermond’s in 1898 where it would become one of the world’s largest and most influential organizations (Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, & Zvacek, 2012).

Subsequently, the number of correspondence institutions continued to grow in Britain and United States. In Edinburgh, Skerry’s College was founded in 1878, followed by University Correspondence College in London in 1887. Correspondence study was also integral to the universities in United States within the schools’ university extension divisions. In France, the government set up a correspondence college in response to the impending World War II. It was established for the education of children and adults (Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, & Zvacek, 2012).
Correspondence study, as the first generation pedagogy of distance education was influenced by behaviorist learning. This kind of learning was based on a positive approach and assumed to be objective, and therefore transferrable from knower to the learner (Tolu & Evans, 2013). The content of the courses was simplified using graphics and divided into sub-parts by course teams. The use of a didactic tone in the written language of the content course establishes a kind of relationship between learners and instructor. The first generation pedagogy of distance education brought freedom and educational chance to thousands of people with a self-study opportunity (Tolu & Evans, 2013).

Although the medium of communication in distance education has change over the years, correspondence is still being used by many distance education courses until now (Moore & Kearsley, 2012).

2.5.2. Electronic Communications

The advances in electronic communication technology have had a significant impact on the medium of communication and delivery modes of distance education. The innovation of radio in the 1920s made many educators in university extension departments in United States react with enthusiasm (Moore & Kearsley, 2012). At least 176 radio stations were constructed at educational institutions (Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, & Zvacek, 2012), some of them to broadcast K-12 educational programs to public school audiences (Moore & Kearsley, 2012). Radio as a delivery method in distance education started in the 1940s (Perry & Rumble, 1987).

The innovation of television also had an impact in distance education. Educational television was in development in the early 1930s, following the experimental of television teaching program that were produced at the University of Iowa, Purdue University, and Kansas State College (Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, & Zvacek, 2012). However, it was not until the 1950s that broadcast television was used to deliver college credit courses at some universities in the United States (Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, & Zvacek, 2012). Later, satellite technology that was
made cost effective in 1980s enabled the rapid spread in instructional television (Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, & Zvacek, 2012).

Media technology continued to develop. In the late 1980s and early 1990s, the development of fiber optic communication systems allowed for expansion of live, two-way, high quality audio and video systems in education (Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, & Zvacek, 2012). This technology makes teleconferencing possible to practice in education. The first teleconferencing to be used widely during the 1970s and 1980s was audio-conferencing (Moore & Kearsley, 2012). This delivery mode in distance education has advantages compared to previous modes, such as correspondence and broadcasting lessons via radio or television: unlike previous forms of distance education, which were one-on-one exchanges between a student and the instructor, audio-conferencing allowed a student to answer back and instructors to interact with students in the real time and in different locations (Moore & Kearsley, 2012). Later, two-way or multi-points video conferencing also became available in distance education and became easier and less costly with the development of fiber-optic telephone lines, which allowed interaction between small groups of learners or individual learners and their instructors, with the video displayed on personal computers (Moore & Kearsley, 2012).

This second generation pedagogy of distance education was influenced by a cognitive learning theory, which "led to the use of advanced organizers, role models, summary reflections and simulated peers to draw the user into a sophisticated media world" (Garrison & Anderson, 2003, p. 37).

2.5.3. Birth of the Distance Teaching Universities

The fundamental change in the way distance education was practice in the world occurred when the University of South Africa decided to become a distance teaching university in 1962, following by the founding of the Open University of the United Kingdom in 1971, which offers full degree programs, courses and the innovative use of media (Holmberg, 1986; Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, & Zvacek, 2012).

Since then, in the early 1970s and 1980s, distance teaching universities have been established in North America, Australia, New Zealand, Latin America, Europe, and
Asia (Zuhairi, 1994), such as Universidad Nacional de Educación, Spain in 1972; Fernuniversitat, Germany in 1974; Alama Iqbal Open University, Pakistan in 1974; Athabasca University, Canada in 1975; Open University of China, China in 1979; Anadolu University, Turkey in 1982; Korean National Open University, South Korea in 1982; Indira Gandhi National Open University, India in 1985; and Payame Noor University, Iran in 1987 (Moore & Kearsley, 2012). Distance teaching universities in many countries have been advocated as a strategy to offer wider access to and equity for higher education for their citizens (Zuhairi, 1994), including Indonesia, where Universitas Terbuka was founded in 1984 with the mission of providing higher education to all.

The reasons for the founding of distance teaching universities may vary in many countries. Holmberg (1986) offers several political, economic, and educational reasons, including the need felt in many countries to increase the offerings of university education generally, a realization that benefits adults with jobs, family responsibilities, and social commitments from a large group of prospective part-time university students, the need found in many professions for further training at an advanced level, a wish to serve both individuals and society by offering study opportunities for adults, among them disadvantaged groups, and a wish to support educational innovation.

2.5.4. Computer-Mediated Communication in Distance Education

Distance-learning courses through the web have opened the doors to groundbreaking innovation after the World Wide Web (WWW) became available in 1993. In the early stage, the web was used to publicize course content. The interaction between students and instructor as well as the interaction among students has increased through the use of email and other web-based tools leading to more interactive and cost and time-efficient distance learning (Tolu & Evans, 2013).

Distance education opportunities are also growing fast as electronic communication technologies become more advanced and common with the use of computer-mediated communication (CMC) and the Internet as an instructional delivery (Rovai, Ponton, & Baker, 2008; Simpson, 2002; Schlosser & Simonson 2006). Computer
mediated communication facilitates activity of teaching and learning between instructors and learners in both synchronous and asynchronous ways (Rovai, Ponton, & Baker, 2008).

Paulsen (1995) created a framework for the pedagogical CMC techniques, including: (1) one-alone techniques are characterized by an individual who accesses information for personal study; (2) one-to-one techniques refer to learning transactions that are limited to two people, such as that which occurs when an instructor and student e-mail back and forth for the purpose of sharing information; (3) one-to-many techniques are those that have one-way communication from instructor to students, analogous to a lecture, such as when an instructor posts or distributes information for students to read; and (4) many-to-many techniques refer to communication that occurs between multiple persons (for instance, instructor and students), such as in an online asynchronous discussion board.

The arrival of computer mediated conferencing capabilities has had an impact on the traditional approach to the design of distance education instruction (Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, & Zvacek, 2012). Computer conferencing increases the potential for collaborative learning and interaction among the students, which was difficult with previous forms of distance education (Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, & Zvacek, 2012). These days, computer networks are a convenient way to distribute learning materials around the world in distance education (Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, & Zvacek, 2012).

Between synchronous and asynchronous forms of online communication, the model that is used mostly is asynchronous computer-mediated conferencing since it provides the flexibility required by many distance learners in that they can participate in a conference at any time (Hopkins, Gibson, Solé, Savvides, & Starkey, 2008). Beside the flexibility in time and space, the practitioner in open and distance learning argue that the asynchronous computer-mediated conferencing model potentially provides opportunities for learners to process the information, leading to a deeper understanding of subject matter than was previously possible in traditional forms of distance education (Hara, Bonk, & Angeli, 2000).
Similarly, various scholars retain that online technologies can facilitate the achievement of social constructivist learning goals in distance learning courses (for example, Bates, 2005; Jonassen, 1995; Salmon, 2003). Constructivist learning theories have had a profound effect on this generation distance education systems (Garrison & Anderson, 2003). Learners have become active in constructing and re-constructing knowledge as they participate in collaborative and social learning environments (Tolu & Evans, 2013). In this generation, the use of learning management systems such as Blackboard, Canvas, and Moodle, web based synchronous systems, social networks, and virtual communities are on the rise (Garrison & Anderson, 2003).

The developments of technology have changed the underline of pedagogy in distance education. Early generations’ pedagogy of distance education emphasized individualized learning with self-study methods, while new generations value collaborative and social learning which recognizes that individual meaning making cannot be separated from social influence (Tolu & Evans, 2013).

The development of computer network today does not eliminate the previous forms of other technologies, such as radio, television and audio video conferencing in the ways of instructional delivery in distance education. Many open universities have had some difficulties in embracing fully online courses; there has been a concern that many students will not have convenient and ready access to a computer and the Internet (Bates, 2005). Universitas Terbuka, Indonesia also has the same concern, since many students who are enrolled come from remote areas and villages that do not have infrastructures which support Internet technology.

2.5.5. Pedagogy in Distance Education

The qualifications of distance education are not just based on the technology used. Some scholars also classified distance education based on pedagogy that defines the distance learning experiences encapsulated in the learning design. Anderson & Dron (2011) introduced at least three generations of pedagogy in distance education. The three generations model include: cognitive-behaviorism, constructivism, and connectivism. Anderson and Dron (2011) examined these three generations of
pedagogy using the community of inquiry model (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2000) with its focus on cognitive, social, and teaching presences.

Anderson & Dron (2011) defined the cognitive presence as “the means and context through which learners construct and confirm new knowledge” (p. 83). Cognitive-behaviorism models of distance education pedagogy underline the importance of using an instructional systems design model where the learning objectives are clearly identified and stated and exist apart from the learner and the context of study. In this model, social presence is almost non-existent, because learning is conceived as an individual process. Teacher presence is also limited through the printed text, voice, and body language of the teacher that is to be transmitted via television, video, and multimedia-based educational production (Anderson & Dron, 2011).

The second generation of pedagogy in distance education is constructivist (Anderson & Dron, 2011). Constructivists emphasize the importance of knowledge having individual, constructed meaning. Therefore, cognitive growth present in this pedagogy model takes place in real-world contexts outside of formal classrooms. Cognitive presence also assumes that learners are actively engaged (Anderson & Dron, 2011). Teaching presence is important in the constructivist model, because the instructors do not just give information, but they are also guides, helpers, and partners for the students. They focus on guiding and evaluating authentic tasks performed in realistic contexts (Kanuka & Anderson, 1999; Anderson & Dron, 2011).

According to Anderson & Dron (2011), connectivism is the third generation of pedagogy models of distance education. Connectivist learning focuses on building and maintaining networked connections that are current and flexible enough to be applied to existing and emergent problems (Anderson & Dron, 2011). Connectivism also assumes that information is plentiful and that the learner’s role is not to memorize or even understand everything, but to have the capacity to find and apply knowledge when and where it is needed (Anderson & Dron, 2011).

However, as generations of technology, none of these three pedagogical generations has disappeared. Anderson and Dron (2011) argue that all three can and
should be effectively used to address the full spectrum of learning needs and aspirations of 21st Century learners.

2.5.6. Theories in Distance Education

Theory of Interaction and Communication

Interaction and communication between learners and instructor or among learners is essential in distance education. The pioneer of this theory in distance education is Börje Holmberg. He introduced the theory that was called “guided didactic conversation” in 1960 (Holmberg, 1981, p. 30). It implies that guided conversation is important to fill the distance between the teacher and the learner, and such conversation facilitates the learning process (Holmberg, 1985).

The interaction and communication according to this theory happens in two ways, that are: one way traffic in the form of pre-produced course materials sent from supporting organization and involving students in interaction with text, describes as simulated communication; and two ways traffic refers to the real communication between students and the supporting organization (Holmberg, 1995). Personal relation, study pleasure and empathy between students and those supporting them are important to learning in distance education (Holmberg, 2008). This thinking is based on the following postulates:

a. Feelings of personal relation between the learning and teaching parties promote study pleasure and motivation.

b. Such feelings can be fostered on the one hand by well-develop self-instructional material, and on the other hand by interaction.

c. Intellectual pleasure and study motivation are favorable to the attainment of study goals and the use of proper study processes and methods.

d. The atmosphere, language, and conventions of friendly conversation favor feelings of personal relations according to postulate a.

e. Messages given and received in conversational form are easily understood and remembered.

f. The conversation concept can be successfully applied to distance education and the media available to it (Holmberg, 2007, p. 70).
In view of the development and innovation of technology, information and communication, Holmberg argued there were new possibilities for interaction among students and teachers through synchronous and asynchronous discussions, online teaching, and online chats between students and teachers. These kinds of communication made education more accessible for adults with jobs, families, and other commitments (Holmberg, 2008) and they increased the flexibility of distance education in terms of collaborative learning (Holmberg, 2008). Computer technology is an excellent medium for interactions that involve the exchange of views and experiences between individual students and groups of students or between students and their teachers in a distance education programs (Holmberg, 2008).

For this study, the theory of interaction and communication is relevant to be used for the following reason. This theory promotes both one-way and two-way interaction and communication between students and the institution. Recently, Holmberg (2008) advances that the theory also opens for new possibilities for online teaching, also for interaction through synchronous and asynchronous discussions, between students and teachers. In this research, the two-way communication between student and student, as well as between student and teacher are essential in an online tutorial. The online tutorial at UT is part of an asynchronous computer communication in online teaching. The interaction in the discussion forums in the tutorial can create feelings of personal relationship and empathy between students and tutors and promote motivation for students to actively participate in the tutorial. Therefore, the theory can be seen as the foundation of the interaction and communication in the online tutorial at UT.

**Theory of Community of Inquiry**

Online learning has been utilized extensively to enhance classroom learning as well as to increase access to educational experiences at a distance, largely through synchronous and asynchronous computer-mediated communication applications (Garrison & Archer, 2007). Garrison, Anderson, and Archer (2000) theorized that a ‘community of inquiry’ composed of students and teachers would provide collaborative constructivist learning experiences along the line of John Dewey’s (1938) notion of practical inquiry. This is a dynamic process model designed to define, describe and measure elements supporting the development of online learning communities (Swan &
The model of Community of Inquiry assumes that learning occurs within the community through the interaction of three core elements. The three essential elements include: social presence, cognitive presence, and teaching presence.

**Figure 2.1. Community of Inquiry Framework**  
(*Garrison, Anderson & Archer, 2000*)

The theory of Community of Inquiry is still developing until the present. The definition of the three elements has been developed over the time. Social presence is originally defined as “the ability of learners to project themselves (i.e. their personal characteristics) socially and emotionally, thereby representing themselves as ‘real people’ in a community of inquiry” (*Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2000*, p. 94). The definition of social presence is revised as “the ability of participants to identify with the group or course of study, communicate purposefully in trusting environment and develop personal and affective relationships progressively by way of projecting their individual personality” (*Garrison, 2011*, p. 34). According to Garrison (2011), too much emphasis on developing interpersonal relationship may harm the academic functioning of the group if the individual bonds are stronger than the identity to the group and its goals.

Garrison (2011) categorized social presence into interpersonal communication, open communication and cohesive responses. Interpersonal communication is
responsible for setting the academic climate for open and academically purposeful communication. It also creates a climate and sense of belonging to the group and its educational goals (Garrison, 2011). Indicators of interpersonal relationships include affective expression, self-disclosure and using humor (Garrison, 2011). Open communication is referred as producing an environment for learners to express themselves freely and openly. Indicators of open communication include continuing a discussion thread, quoting from others’ messages, referring explicitly to others’ messages, asking questions, complimenting, expressing appreciation, and expressing agreement (Garrison, 2011). Interpersonal and open communication contributes directly to group cohesion. In a cohesive community, constructing meaning, confirming understanding and completing collaborative activities can be achieved successfully (Garrison, 2011). Indicators of cohesive responses include addressing participants by name, addressing or refers to the group using inclusive pronouns, and salutations (Garrison, 2011).

Garrison (2011) argued that social presence is an essential for collaboration and create critical discourse. However, it does not mean to support engagement for only social purposes. He asserted that social presence in academic context means “creating a climate that support and encourages probing questions, skepticism and the contribution of explanatory ideas” (p. 32). Sense of belonging is required to sustain critical thinking and discourse, and that is not able to develop instantly; it must develop over time.

The role of the teacher is important to establish social presence in an online learning. Garrison (2011) asserted that the teacher should model of appropriate messages and responses. It is an important factor in making students feel welcome and in giving them a sense of belonging. The teachers have to be sensitive and responsive at the beginning of the online activities. They should also ask students to collaborate to establish group identity. Garrison (2011) also suggested that the face to face or synchronous online meeting may necessary to accelerate social presence. He argued that this kind of meeting can shift the group dynamics more rapidly toward intellectually productive activities (Garrison, 2011).
Within the community of inquiry, cognitive presence is defined as “the extent to which learners are able to construct and confirm meaning through sustained reflection and discourse in a critical community of inquiry.” This model consists of four phases of critical inquiry, namely the (a) triggering event, (b) exploration, (c) integration, and (d) resolution (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2001, p. 10-11).

The triggering event is the initiation phase of critical inquiry. In this phase, an issue, dilemma, or problem that emerges from the experience is identified or recognized. The event can be purposively provided by the teachers when they communicate learning challenges or tasks. However, in a more democratic and nonhierarchical application of computer conferencing, any students may add a triggering event to the discourse. In this phase teacher has a critical role to shape, or discard potentially distracting triggering events, so that the focus remain in the intended educational outcomes (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2001).

The second phase of the process of critical inquiry is exploration. In this phase, participants shift between the private, reflective world of the individual and the social exploration of ideas. Early in this phase, students are required to understand the nature of the problem, and then move to a fuller exploration of relevant information. This exploration takes place in a community of inquiry by moving between the private and share worlds, that is between critical reflection and discourse. At the end of this phase, students begin to selective with regard to what is relevant to the problem. This phase characterized by brainstorming, questioning and exchange information (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2001).

The third phase is integration. This phase is characterized by construct meaning from the ideas generated in the exploratory phase. During the transition from the exploratory phase, students will begin to assess the applicability of ideas in term of how well they connect and describe issue or event under consideration. In this moment, students move repeatedly between reflections and discourse. Evidence of the integration of ideas and the construction of meaning must be inferred from communication within the community of inquiry. Teacher in this phase is required for being active in teaching presence to diagnose misconceptions, to provide probing questions, comments, and
additional information in an effort to ensure continuing cognitive development, and to model the critical thinking process (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2001).

The fourth phase is a resolution of the dilemma or problem by means of direct action. In an educational context, it is usually entails a vicarious test using thought experiments and consensus building within the community of inquiry. Progression to the fourth phase requires clear expectations and opportunities to apply newly created knowledge (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2001).

Meanwhile, teaching presence is defined as “the design, facilitation and direction of cognitive and social processes for the purpose of realizing personality meaningful and educationally worthwhile learning outcomes” (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2001, p. 5). In this educational experience, teachers and learners have important, complimentary responsibilities; they both are part of process of learning (Garrison, 2011). The use of term of ‘teaching presence’ rather than ‘teacher presence’ is to recognize the fact that the role of teacher may also be assumed by learners.

Anderson, Rourke, Garrison, and Archer (2001) identified teaching roles as: (1) design and organization; (2) facilitating discourse; and (3) direct instruction. It is essential for teachers to make a thorough planning for the process, evaluation, structure, and interaction aspect of online course before the course becomes available to students. Everything needs to be more explicit and transparent since online learning sets new expectation and norm for students (Tolu & Evans, 2013).

Facilitating discourse is defined as a critical element to "maintaining interest, motivation and engagement of students in effective learning" (Anderson et al., 2001, p. 7). As a facilitator in online learning, the teacher encourages participation of students by modelling, commenting on posts, identifying areas of agreement and disagreement, keeping the discourse focused on learning objectives, and trying to draw in inactive students (Tolu & Evans, 2013).

Direct instruction, refers to teachers providing intellectual and scholarly leadership through in-depth understanding of their subject matter knowledge (Anderson et al., 2001). This role is similar to that of a subject-matter expert. Using subject and
pedagogical expertise, the instructor directs learners, provides feedback, and injects knowledge from several resources (Anderson, et al., 2001).

Anderson, et al. (2001) argued that an important function of the online tutor in higher education is the subject knowledge and the ability to convey that knowledge without dominating the discussion. They concluded:

... we believe that there are many fields of knowledge, as well as attitudes and skills, that are best learned in forms of higher education that require the active participation of a subject matter expert in the critical discourse. This subject matter expert is expected to provide direct instruction by interjecting comments, referring students to information resources, and organizing activities that allow the students to construct the content in their own minds and personal contexts (p. 9).

In terms of the tutor’s role in promoting higher-order critical inquiry, Anderson et al. (2001) asserted:

A widely documented problem in computer conferencing is the difficulty of focusing and refining discussions so that the conversation progresses beyond information sharing to knowledge construction and especially application and integration. We believe that this stalling of the discussion at the lower levels of the critical inquiry process occurs when there is not adequate teaching presence in the computer conference. The teachers’ summary is also normally not merely a “weaving” of the previous postings. It often serves to develop and explicitly delineate the context in which knowledge growth has taken place (p. 9).

For this study, I use the theory of community of inquiry for my model of online civic education tutorial at UT because of these reasons. First, I would like to apply a social constructivist learning approach for my learning design in the tutorial. The social constructivist perspective is recognition of the social construction of knowledge through dialogue and negotiation, that is the knowledge negotiation within a social group as it communicates. For students to obtain this knowledge they would have to become a part of a community (Hewitt & Scardamalia, 1998). Through Community of Inquiry model in online civic education tutorial, students would be part of community of learners who would construct critical discourse and learn collaboratively to have a meaningful educational experience. Their participation in the community of inquiry provides the foundation for the development of their civic voice, agency and understanding.
Second, the core of civic education is about relationship between citizens and other citizens, as well as relationship between citizens with the state. Therefore, it is about interaction and communication between communities, these are represented through the race, ethnicity and individuality of the students, tutors and professors who engage in the Civic Education course. I think it would be beneficial if the pedagogical approach of the online civic education tutorial also engendered or enabled the interaction between students in the community generally at UT. The interactions in the community of inquiry in the tutorial depict the interactions between citizens in the real society.

2.6. Adult Learner

Most of the students who enroll in a distance education institution are adults. This may correspondence with the characteristics of distance education itself that give the opportunities for adults who have jobs, family and other commitments to learn because it is flexible in the matter of time and place. Adults can still study at distance without have to leave their jobs and family, in anytime and anywhere.

Adults have their own characteristics in learning. Malcolm Knowles proposed a theory or model of adult learning called Andragogy (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2011). This theory based on six assumptions. The first assumption is the learner’s need to know. Adults need to know why they need to learn something before undertaking to learn something on their own. They also want to know “how learning will be conducted, what learning will occur, and why learning is important” (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 1998, p. 133).

The second assumption is self-directed learning. Knowles (1975) defined self-directed learning as a process that shows that someone take the initiative, either with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying resources learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating their own learning outcomes. It is the ability of taking control of the techniques and the purposes of learning. With regard to this assumption, Knowles (1980) also suggested that the classroom environment should be characterized by
equality or mutual respect and cooperation, and there are “a spirit of mutually between teachers and students as joint inquirers” (p. 47).

The third assumption is the role of learners’ experiences. Adults have more and a different quality of experience from that of youth when they enter into an educational activity. One of the consequences of these differences is that for many kinds of learning, the resources for learning reside in the adult learners themselves (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2011). The emphasis of adult education is on the techniques that faucet into the experience of the learners, such as group discussions, simulation exercises, and problem solving activities, case method, instead of transmittal techniques, with the greater emphasis is on peer-helping activities (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2011). The prior learners’ experiences impact their learning in creating individual differences, providing rich resources, creating biases, and providing adults’ self-identity.

The fourth assumption is readiness to learn. Adults become ready to learn when their life situations create a need to learn. The source of this assumption is the developmental tasks related to moving from one developmental stage to the next (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2011). The fifth assumption is orientation to learning. In general, adult prefer a problem solving orientation in learning. In particular, they can learn most effectively new knowledge, understandings, skills, values, and attitudes when they are presented in real life context (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2011). The sixth assumption is motivation to learn. Adults have high motivation to learn when they can gain the new knowledge to help them solve important problems in their life (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2011).

However, there are some other reasons that motivate adults to learn. Moore (1986) argued that based on motivation there are three kinds of characteristics of adults in learning in distance education institution. The first type is independent people who decide to follow the educational program to meet their learning needs. They could be considered as self-directed learners, and it is possible they decide to drop out if they consider that the educational program that they follow do not suit their needs. The second type is people who motivate to learn to meet the requirements to obtain a formal certificate to increase their interest in their future lives. Like the first type, they may be an
independent person in life but not independent in learning. The third type is learners who use education to meet their emotional needs and the needs to depend on others.

Adults who decide to go back to the formal education also could be classified into two groups: those who have a need to learn more, and those who have a need to obtain a diploma (paper qualification). Prummer (1990) study on learning motivation of distance education’s students in Germany showed that the educational goals of students taking distance education related to their work.

The studies’ result from Moore and Prummer are similar with the study that was conducted by Suciati for UT’s students. Suciati (1990) argued that the purpose of distance education’s students to obtain a degree was that they expected to increase their income and status as distance education’s graduates. Suciati (1990) further argued that there were four categories of reasons students enrolled at UT, namely:

a. High school graduates who were waiting to enroll back into conventional (face to face) state universities. If they were accepted at state universities, then they would leave UT. Some conventional state universities in Indonesia become a choice for students because they are cheaper and more prestigious than private universities.

b. High school graduates who were seeking employment. College degree would hopefully help them to gain employment.

c. Students who concurrently took courses at UT. Suciati gave an example of civil engineering students in a college who also took the management program at UT. The students hoped to combine these two fields of science that they took.

d. Students who worked in the government agencies or the private sector. The public servants expected that obtaining a college degree would increase their status at work. Meanwhile, students from the private sector tended to have a goal to increase their knowledge than a degree or diploma.

Students’ motivation to learn affects their behavior in the learning process at distance education institutions. The stronger their motivation to learn, the more they tried to solve various problems that arise during the learning process, including the issues that arise from the self, social environment, as well as distance education institutions attended (Darmayanti, 2005).
2.7. A Constructivist Approach to Learning

Constructivism is “an epistemology, a philosophical explanation about the nature of knowledge” (Airasian & Walsh, 1997, p. 444). It is a theory about how learners come to understand the world. According to constructivists, knowledge is produced by the knower from existing beliefs and experiences; it is constructed and comprised of what individuals create and express in their daily activities. Every individual makes his or her own meaning from personal beliefs and experiences, therefore, constructivists hold knowledge, not as universal “truth,” but rather something like a “working hypothesis” (p. 445).

Educators derived specific teaching techniques based on an epistemological approach, a philosophical viewpoint, and a psychological construct of constructivism (Morales, 2010). Constructivism is based on the belief that knowledge is not a thing that can be simply given by the instructor to learners. Learners do not absorb information from the outside world by mere transference of knowledge from the teacher, but rather, they learn by actively organizing and making sense of information in their own ways (Prawat & Floden, 1994). Knowledge is constructed by learners through an active, mental process of development by linking the newly received information to their existing knowledge and experience (Blumentritt & Johnston, 1999). Therefore, learners are the builders and creators of meaning and knowledge (Gray, n.d).

Constructivism can be seen as a learning paradigm that shifts the pedagogical method from teacher-centered to learner-centered. Teacher-centered approaches are characterized by a view that the teacher is the primary source of knowledge for learners. Meanwhile in a learner-centered environment, the focus is on the preferences of the learners (Brown, 2006). One of the primary goals of constructivism is to provide a democratic and critical learning experience for learners. It serves to open boundaries through inquiry, not through unquestioned acceptance of prevailing knowledge. It is the realization that knowledge is never neutral that the ways in which knowledge is mediated and cited are as dynamic and important as the knowledge itself (Hirtle, 1996).

Constructivism treats the individual as actively involved in the process of thinking and learning. The learners are the key players who participate in generating meaning or
understanding. They do not just listen or read, but also debate, discuss, analyze, hypothesize, investigate, and take viewpoints (Perkins, 1999). Therefore, the learners cannot just passively accept information by repeating others’ wordings or conclusions. They have to be creative, and also internalize, reshape or transform information. They also connect new learning with already-existing knowledge (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009).

Constructivist philosophy maintains that knowledge is not given but gained through real experiences that have purpose and meaning to the learner (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009). Learning is the active process of constructing conceptual frameworks (Cobern, 1993). When we encounter something new, we have to merge it with our previous ideas and experience, maybe changing what we believe, or maybe discarding the new information as irrelevant. In any case, we are active creators of our own knowledge. To do this, we must ask questions, explore, and assess what we know.

According to constructivist learning, knowledge is not certain and simple. The constructivist position is that knowledge is holistic and evolving. Learning ability is develops gradually over time; it is not instantly formed and fixed (Paulsen & Feldman, 1999). Constructivist learning also believes that knowledge is subjective—that is, that truth is multiple, depends on individual interpretations, and is created inside the human mind. Subjectivity implies that all students can learn, and all students are individuals with differences in experience and nature (Airasian & Walsh, 1997).

There are two strands of constructivist learning theory: cognitive constructivism from Jean Piaget (1972), and social constructivism from Lev Vygotsky (1978).

2.7.1. Cognitive Constructivist Learning

Cognitive constructivism is based on the idea that knowledge is constructed and made meaningful through an individual's interactions and analyses of the environment. In that sense, knowledge is constructed in the mind of the individual through the individual’s interactions with the world (Piaget, 1972). The emphasis here is on the individual constructing knowledge through a cognitive process of analyzing and interpreting experiences. The focus for Piaget was a developmental examination of the
interior processes involved in cognizing the world and how cognition is shaped developmentally.

2.7.2. Social Constructivist Learning

Meanwhile, social constructivism proposed by Lev Vygotsky stressed that socio-cultural systems have a major impact on an individual’s learning (Vygotsky, 1978; Ruey, 2010). Learning could not be separated from the social context in which it occurs, nor could accommodation and assimilation occur without active integration of the learner in some form of community of practice, even if that involved just one other person or merely a sociocultural milieu (Stavredes, 2011). One of the characteristics of learning from the social constructivist perspectives is active construction of knowledge based on experience with and previous knowledge of the physical and social worlds.

The social constructivist perspective is recognition of the social construction of knowledge through dialogue and negotiation. Vygotsky emphasized dialogue and interaction with peers and instructor in the learning process (Woo & Reeves, 2007). Dialogue and interaction allow a dynamic sharing of knowledge, understanding and experiences (Reed, Smith & Sherratt, 2008). According to social constructivist theory, knowledge is socially constructed and situated through reflection on one’s own thoughts and experiences, as well as other learners’ ideas: Vygotsky recognized both the social processes and interior processes of assimilation in learning (Ruey, 2010). In the social constructivist learning environment, learners are encouraged to actively engage in learning, such as discussing, arguing, negotiating ideas, and collaboratively solving problems (Palincsar 1998; Ruey, 2010). Social interactions with the teacher and other students are a significant part of the learning process. Knowledge is not solely constructed within the mind of the individual; rather, interactions within a social context involve learners in sharing, constructing, and reconstructing their ideas and beliefs.

Vygotsky (1978) also introduced the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) which he defined as “the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined by problem solving under adult guidance or in
collaboration with more capable peers” (p. 78). The ZPD is an intangible area in which optimal learning takes place and in which, through a process of ‘scaffolding’ within the ZPD, a learner can extend beyond their current capabilities to the extent that “the (physical) development process lags behind the learning process” (p. 89).

Social constructivism assumes that learner construction of knowledge is the product of social interaction, interpretation and understanding (Adams, 2006). It also led to developments around active learning: the notion that learning is not a passive process, but rather requires active involvement and engagement with both materials and peers. The theory also supports learner ownership of learning which takes place in a meaningful, authentic context and becomes a social, collaborative activity, where peers play an important role in encouraging learning, and in developing critical thinking skills, problem-solving, and team skills (Neo, 2005).

Social constructivist thought also emphasizes that learning and thinking are situated in specific social contexts. Its notion consists of authentic or situated learning, where the learners take part in activities which are directly relevant to their real lives and which take place within a culture similar to an applied setting (Brown, et. al., 1989). If the learning environment provides a real-world, case-based environment, it is more likely to produce authentic and meaningful knowledge (Huang, 2002).

Furthermore, social constructivism values pluralism (Levine, 2005). It emphasizes that interests, values, and dispositions differ according to the culture, gender, and social class of learners. Every learner may have unique characteristics and instructor should accommodate those differences. Many constructivists also argue that democracy should not only be an outcome of education, but also an aspect of it.

We cannot deny that we live in a plural society with many cultures. We have to realize that people from different cultures have their own characteristics and may have their own ways of living, ways of being, ways of thinking, and ways of seeing the world. It is important for us to understand and appreciate those differences. We cannot force them to be the same as us. Appreciating the differences of other people, means that we appreciate them as they are. This would be especially important for the Indonesian context, which is very pluralistic. Conflicts often occur between people from different
cultures, ethnic groups, and religions because of misunderstanding or unwillingness to accept the differences. Those conflicts could be prevented if people understand each other. A social constructivist approach in education can develop a democratic teaching and learning environment, so learners can experience what democracy really is.

Because social constructivists believe that thinking takes place in communication, they argue that when learners’ home cultures are honored and validated a dialogue will open up fixed boundaries so that "students can freely examine different types of knowledge in a democratic classroom where they can freely examine their perspectives and moral commitments" (Banks 1993, p. 6). Helping to create a safe, respectful environment for all learners and teachers stimulates knowledge, skills and dispositions in learners that they also need as critical citizens in a democratic society.

2.7.3. Critiques on Constructivism

In *Passibility: at the Limits of the Constructivist Metaphor*, Wolff-Michael Roth (2011) critiqued constructivism on its over-reliance on what he refers to as ‘intellectualism’ in science and mathematics education. By focusing on cognitive dimensions, intellectualism ignores the “performative/practice dimensions of human actions and its affective, and valuative dimensions,” the emotions and passions experienced by individuals, and in hence, their “capacity to be affected” (pp. 3-4).

Roth (2011) named five problems with the constructivist metaphor:

1. The learning paradox – refers to the question of how any cognitive organism can construct a mental organization more complex than its current one in a world that is of the same complexity as the mind.
2. The impossibility to aim for the construction of knowledge that is inherently unknown from the perspective of the learner.
3. The constitutive role of the living/lived body in knowing.
4. The role of passivity in learning from experience.
5. The inherent otherness of knowledge and self

Roth (2011) saw learning as “appropriating the unintended, something other, something that lies outside of the horizon of the known; something that is foreign/strange” (p. 8). Therefore, he argued that the constructivist metaphor cannot be
correct because “in terms of its own discourse it is ‘non-viable’ – as human consciousness could not have begun with a subject that constructs its cognition. Being always already is ahead of itself, producing order and orderly behavior prior to recognizing and conceptualizing this order. There is no order before schemes and the question is how schemes emerge from a situation without order – from the perspective of the learning organism” (p. 8). He asserted that learning is also about receiving something foreign or unknown that comes to us. Therefore, we cannot aim towards something that we do not know, unless we have already had some form of prior knowledge of content and of how to apply it to come up with something new.

In Roth’s first point above, the ‘learning paradox’ he questions how any cognitive organism can construct a mental organization more complex than its current one in a world that is of the same complexity of the mind. But this is like reducing the mind to a set of signal responses. How would Roth account for scientific revolutions in the first place, if not for the capacity of human thoughts to transcend themselves? How do languages develop? Where do new thoughts and ideas come from?

On his second point, the so-called ‘impossibility’ to aim for knowledge that is unknown to the learner—one might ask, “How is it, then, that learning occurs in the first place?” How do people become enlightened, if not for their capacity to venture into the unknown? Roth’s argument turns back on itself and digests its very words; it discounts itself into double-speak.

Other scholars such as Ariasian and Walsh (1997) offered more useful critiques about cognitive constructivism and social constructivism in general. They asserted that the major emphasis of developmental theories such as Piaget’s is on describing the universal form of structures of knowledge (pre-logical, concrete, and abstract operations) that guide meaning making. These cognitive structures are assumed to be organized, so that pre-logical thinking occurs prior to concrete logical thinking in developmental sequence (Ariasian & Walsh, 1997). The individual student is considered to be the meaning maker within this framework, with the main goal of the learning being the development of the individual’s personal knowledge (Ariasian & Walsh, 1997). Ariasian and Walsh (1997) argued that this perspective of cognitive development does not take
into account cultural and political dimensions of schooling such as the race, class, and gender backgrounds of the teachers and students, and how their prior learning histories influence the kinds of meaning made in classrooms. They argue that “cognitive-developmental theories disconnect meaning making from affect by focusing on isolating universal forms of knowledge and thus limiting consideration of the socio-cultural and contextual influences on construction of knowledge” (p. 445).

Moreover, Ariasian and Walsh (1997) asserted that social constructivist rejects the individual orientations of Piagetian theory, and emphasize the social construction of knowledge, where it individuals construct meaning through interacting with the social milieu in which they are situated. Because individual social and cultural contexts differ, the meanings people make may be unique to themselves or their cultures, potentially resulting in as many meanings as there are meaning makers. Ariasian and Walsh (1997) critique this perspective by pointing to the chaos that might be inherent in a multiplicity of potential meanings. They argue that social constructivists only recognize the differences across meanings and limit their recognition of the universal forms that bring order to an infinite variety of meanings.

Another critique of constructivism comes from Richard Fox (2001) in his article *Constructivism Examined*. He critiqued the claims of constructivism, as follows:

1. *Learning is an active process.*
   Fox (2001) observed that in its emphasis on learners’ active participation, constructivism is often understood in a way that it too easily dismisses the roles of passive perception, such as listening, reading, memorizing, and all the mechanical learning methods in traditional didactic lecturing. For Fox, both active and passive learning are important.

2. *Knowledge is constructed, rather than innate, or passively absorbed.*
   Fox (2001) once again argued that constructivism only “highlights one aspect of learning, namely the extent to which it is a matter of acquiring and elaborating concepts, in opposition to innate, or maturational, influences on learning, and in opposition to implicit leaning” (p. 25). He asserted that human beings have an ability to perceive, to learn, to speak and to reason based on the innate capacities of the
evolved human nervous system. Constructivists contrast active learning with “passive absorption.” However, Fox argued that passive absorption of elements of our experience is exactly what does seem to occur in contextual and implicit learning (p. 26).

3. **Knowledge is invented, not discovered.**

Fox (2001) contended that our conceptual viewpoints are limited. He argued that if we cannot know “things in themselves” or “reality as it is” it does not mean that we have to give up our assumption of the existence of things in them, or of an external world independent of human minds (p. 26). He further argued that our knowledge is fallible rather than certain, and we need to maintain some form of feedback from the non-human world in order to avoid an individual or social form of solipsism as a matter of survival.

4. **(a) All knowledge is personal and idiosyncratic; (b) All knowledge is socially constructed**

Fox (2001) commented that the individual or cognitive version of constructivism tends toward solipsism by insisting on the subjectivity of the individual learner’s experiences; it tends towards a denial of the possibility of sharing and communicating knowledge between people. Fox argued that if cognitive constructivists admitted that knowledge can in fact be communicated, shared, compared, and evaluated, then, there is no distinctive point to the claim that knowledge is personal and idiosyncratic, and common sense. On the contrary, if this is not admitted, then we are left wondering what there is for teachers to do.

Fox (2001) also commented that the idea of social determinants in all learning would deny the individual by him- or herself any role or influence in learning. According to Fox, individuals have often had a crucial role to play in changing peoples’ beliefs, in changing knowledge and hence in changing cultures. He argued that focusing on teaching as the shared construction of knowledge risks ignoring the extent to which learning depends on independent practice and problem solving. Fox did believe that, besides sharing knowledge, we have to make knowledge our own.
2.7.4. An Online Social Constructivist Approach

Research agrees that constructivist learning theory, which focuses on knowledge construction based on learner’s previous experience, is a good fit for online learning because it “ensures learning among learners” (Koohang, Riley, Smith, & Schreurs, 2009, p. 91). In a synchronous or asynchronous online learning course, learners use their prior knowledge and the knowledge of their peers and instructor through discussion and dialogues to enrich the class discourse and therefore find the appropriate solution to the problem on hand (Almala, 2006) or simply to advance knowledge and understanding.

The social constructivist approach is valuable in online learning context because this principle allows online learners who are separated and alone to learn together by providing collaborative learning in the online environment. For some learners, it is not easy to learn independently. They may not have enough motivation to study alone. Interactivity among learners provides a way to motivate them in their study (Huang 2002). Middleton (1997) suggested factors, such as feelings of isolation, time management problems, and limited accessibility to materials, to other students, and to instructors, that can influence students’ perceptions of distance education in a negative way and result in student frustration and anxiety. The students’ feeling of being isolated in an online and distance learning environment likely could be solved by designing a course with an instruction that promote collaborative learning with other students and the instructor. A social constructivist approach is fitting for this situation.

Gazi (2009) argued that the constructivist approach encourages students to manage their learning through a “meta-cognitive, self-reflective and collaborative process” (p. 69). Moreover, Gazi (2009) found that a constructivist-based online course improved students’ learning and enhanced “communication, teamwork, critical thinking, and self-responsibility skills” (p. 74). Gazi (2009) further stated that the constructivist course provides learners with in-depth knowledge and experience in the subject area, enhances deep and active learning, and develops higher order thinking, research skills, reflection, collaboration, presentation skills, and problem-solving skills.

Similarly, Neo (2005) found that students who engaged in online courses better understood the problems posed, worked collaboratively, constructed solutions,
determined learning outcomes and thought that they were more active participants in the learning process, which helped to enhance their critical thinking skills as opposed to their ground-based counterparts. Another study showed that a course which uses online social constructivist learning environment could give the students satisfaction (Sthapornnanon, Sakulbumrungsil, Theeraroungchaisri, & Watcharadamrongkun, 2009), and also showed that they became more engaged with the assignments and each other as they moved between independent struggles for understanding and collective efforts for comprehension (Francis-Baldesa & Pope, 2008).

The Roles of the Instructor and Learner in an Online Social Constructivist Approach

The role of instructor is essential in teaching and learning process in an online social constructivist approach. The role of instructor is a shift from being the source of knowledge to being a facilitator and collaborator with the learners (Rovai, 2004). Their tasks include “providing feedback to learners and a summary of or specific comments on the discussed issues at the end of class discussions and intervening and promoting students’ participation in the discussion when it becomes stagnant” (Ruey, 2010, p. 708). According to Bates & Poole (2003), in social constructivist learning environment, the main responsibilities of the instructor include creating an online environment that encourages participation, fostering students willingness and abilities to discuss with each other, and facilitating learners to ask questions, express their opinions, risk judgments, and also help each other. In other words, the instructor has to serve as a guide to promote self-motivation and self-direction (Kaye & Volkers, 2007).

Furthermore, Gazi (2009) stated that within constructivist pedagogy, the instructor has to be creative regarding the course content. He or she should “provide for and encourage multiple perspectives and representations of content” (p.76). For a social constructivist approach, in which all knowledge is socially constructed through interactions with learners and the environment, Gazi also suggested that the instructor has to prepare and design online courses for deep learning and skills development of the learners.
Rovai (2004) argued that the role of the instructor in a constructivist learning environment is dynamic. It varies from time to time depending upon student needs and circumstances within each class. At one time, the instructor is the expert and source of knowledge and understanding, and in this role, provides answers to student questions. This role is particularly strong in discussion forums in which students are responding to discussion topics and asking questions. At other times, the online instructor assumes the role of a tutor, particularly in collaborative activity forums in which small groups of students are engaged in problem-based learning.

Brooks & Brooks (1999) summarized a large segment of the literature on descriptions of ‘constructivist teachers’. They considered a constructivist teacher as someone who will:

• encourage and accept student autonomy and initiative;
• use a wide variety of materials, including raw data, primary sources, and interactive materials and encourage students to use them;
• inquire about students’ understandings of concepts before sharing his/her own understanding of those concepts;
• encourage students to engage in dialogue with the teacher and with one another;
• encourage student inquiry by asking thoughtful, open-ended questions and encouraging students to ask questions
• encourage students to question each other and who will seek elaboration of students’ initial responses;
• engage students in experiences that show contradictions in initial understandings and then encouraging discussion;
• provide time for students to construct relationships and create metaphors;
• assess students’ understanding through application and performance of open-structured tasks.

In a social constructivist environment, the role of the tutor includes helping students to attain skills of critical thinking. Salmon (2003) proposed five-stage model in assisting students to achieve high-order critical inquiry in online conferencing. In this model, Salmon calls the tutor as e-moderator. The role of tutor in the model is especially critical in stages four and five. The five-stages are: (1) access and motivation (setting up the system, welcoming and encouraging), (2) socialization (establishing cultural, social
learning environments), (3) information exchange (facilitating, supporting use of course materials), (4) knowledge construction (conferencing, moderating process), and (5) development (helping achieve personal goals) stages.

As Salmon (2003) put it, tutors:

… pull together the participants’ contributions by, for example, collecting up statements and relating them to concepts and theories from the course. They enable development of ideas through discussion and collaboration. They summarize from time to time, span wide-ranging views and provide new topics when discussions go off track. They stimulate fresh strands of thought, introduce new themes, and suggest alternative approaches. (p. 42)

In this point of view, the main role of the tutor is as a facilitator who moderates and ensures the coherence of the conversation in the online discussion. The purpose and aims of the conference and the extent to which students are participating determine the degree of intervention required by the tutor. The main goal of the tutor is to engage the learners “to enable meaning making rather than content transmission” (Salmon, 2003 p. 52). This requires tutors who understand how to facilitate students in developing their own civic voice and agency, how to provide them with opportunities to grow through their interactions with each other. The role of the tutor thus shifts from being a dispenser of knowledge to being more of a moderator, at best a coach of learning.

Some research has shown that the time commitment required to manage asynchronous conferencing effectively becomes a major concern for tutors (Browne, 2003; Fox & MacKeogh, 2003). In order to lessen the burden of tutors, peer-moderating schemes have been used widely. This scheme is used also to shift the focus of discussions from the tutor to the learner. A study from Rourke and Anderson (2002) found that learners preferred to be moderated by their peers in online discussions, even though many participants also felt that the discussions that moderate by peers were lacking in depth.

Peer-moderating in an asynchronous online discussion could be seen an opportunity for learners to take some control in learning, make them engaged in the discussion and become satisfied with the course. However, some studies also showed
that tutors’ roles are still essential for learners in online discussion. Studies report that learners really appreciate the opportunity to interact with their tutor and peers in asynchronous computer mediated conferences (Fox & MacKeogh, 2003; Gunawardena & Zittle, 1997; Hara et al., 2000; Rourke & Anderson, 2002). Swan et al. (2000) found a significant correlation between learners’ perceived amount of interaction with their instructors and their perceived learning and overall satisfaction with the courses. Although opportunities to interact with the tutor were the greatest source of satisfaction, the researchers found that students who claimed a high level of interaction with other learners also had higher overall satisfaction and sense of achievement in learning. In Thomas’ (2002) study, certain students stated that online discussions facilitated the development of critical thinking skills and enabled them to reflect on the ideas presented by other learners. Thorpe and Godwin (2006) also found that students valued interaction because they believed it broadened their views and enabled them to learn from different perspectives.

Research literature also found the lack of interactivity in learners’ postings, that is, the tendency of the learners of online discussion to post their contributions without referring to those of their peers. For instance, in two separate studies Henri (1992, 1995) observed that over two-thirds of learners in online discussion posted ‘serial monologues’; they did not respond based on their peers’ contributions. McKenzie and Murphy (2000), as well as Pawan, Paulus, Yalcin, and Chang (2003) found the similar results in their research.

In social constructivist learning environment, learners learn collaboratively with instructor and other learners. Curtis and Lawson (2001) identified students’ behavior as being supportive of collaborative learning: (1) giving and receiving help and assistance; (2) exchanging resources and information; (3) explaining or elaborating information; (4) sharing knowledge with others; (5) giving and receiving feedback; (6) challenging the contributions of others; (7) advocating for increased effort and perseverance among peers; and monitoring each other’s efforts and contributions.

In online social constructivist environments, the role of the learners also changes from that of being recipients of knowledge to that of constructors of knowledge, to being
autonomous learners with meta-cognitive skills for controlling his/her cognitive processes during learning (Neo, 2005). The learners also have the responsibilities, such as having a commitment to contribute to peer learning, have goal setting, and can manage their own learning activities (Kaye & Volkers, 2007).

Good instructional design and the role of instructor and learners are the important keys for the effectiveness of an online social constructivist approach. I now turn to examining the design of such an online course.

2.7.5. Designing an Online Course with Social Constructivist Approach

In an attempt to provide educators with the tools needed to implement social constructivist strategies in the online learning environment, several models, methods, and techniques have been proposed in the literature. Designing and teaching a constructivist course can be challenging because it requires a great deal of time, effort, and interaction. The task becomes even more challenging for an online class because of the absence of the face-to-face meetings.

Rovai (2004) recommended elements required to develop an online learning course with a constructivist approach. The recommendations are to focus on “presentation of the content, instructor-students and student-student interactions, individual and group activities, and students performance” (p. 84). Rovai (2004) then explored that content presentation may include materials, readings, and orientation that includes what is expected from the course, and support for fostering a learning community. Rovai (2004) also asserted about how to combine constructivism with student interaction as key to the process of constructing knowledge, such as discussions, role playing, peer citations, online presence and reflective interaction. Meanwhile, individual and group activities can be designed in a way that appeal to students and allow the application and the construction of knowledge. Group work can encourage the development of collaboration and a participative learning environment (Rovai, 2004, Morales, 2010). It is a challenge for faculty members to evaluate learners in an online constructivist learning environment. This type of environment requires the use of authentic tasks related to instruction and the course’s objectives and goals. The
options of the assessment, therefore, are portfolios, exams, group projects, discussions and regular assignments (Morales, 2010).

In his discussion of constructivism applied to adult learners in online programs, Huang (2002) noted the importance of the educator building experiences that enabled the learner to search for new knowledge, find resources to build on this knowledge, and solve problems. According to Huang (2002), online courses need to provide an opportunity for educators and learners to interact, which is possible through several methods, including e-mail, synchronous discussion, and asynchronous discussion.

Huang (2002) also suggested six instructional principles to be considered when designing online social constructivist pedagogy: interactive learning (interacting with the instructor and peers, rather than engaging in isolated learning); collaborative learning (engaging in collaborative knowledge construction, social negotiation, and reflection); facilitating learning (providing a safe, positive learning environment for sharing ideas and thoughts); authentic learning (connecting learning content to real-life experiences); student-centered learning (emphasizing self-directed, experiential learning); and high-quality learning (stressing critical thinking skills and learners’ reflection on their own lives).

Likewise, Chan (2010) also proposed five ways that can be used to design an online class based on the constructivist principles recommended by Brooks and Brooks (1999):

• Posing problems of emerging relevance to learners. In this activity, the instructor can introduce case studies that reflect real life problems to the learners.

• Structuring learning around the primary concept, which allows the students to explore a subject matter by themselves. In this activity, the instructor can introduce a topic and let the learners engage in a self-initiated inquiry to learn about the topic.

• Seeking and valuing learners’ views. The instructor should ask for elaboration on learning issues to understand learners’ reasoning.

• Adapting curriculum to address learner’s suppositions. The instructor should take learners’ assumptions, social context, and thinking into account.
• Assessing learners’ learning in the context of teaching. The instructor assesses learners’ performances based on the quality of online discussions, synchronously and asynchronously with other students and the instructor.

Savery and Duffy (1996) proposed some useful principles that can help online educators develop a learning environment rich in constructivist ideology with the goal of helping learners achieve positive learning outcomes. The principles proposed include:

• Anchoring all learning activities to a larger task or problem.
• Supporting the learner in developing ownership for the overall problem or task.
• Designing an authentic task and learning environment to reflect the complexity of the environment they should be able to function in at the end of learning.
• Giving the learner ownership of the process used to develop a solution.
• Designing the learning environment to support and challenge the learner’s thinking.
• Encouraging testing ideas against alternative views and alternative contexts.
• Providing an opportunity for and support of reflection on both content and learning process.

2.7.6. A Social Constructivist Approach in an Online Civic Education Program

Civic education is associated with exploring controversial issues, engaging in lively debates and applying understandings, awareness and knowledge to political and social situations. It also relates to the development of civic character and relational and communicative skills that enable people to participate in society more effectively. It is therefore important to assess whether an online course can provide an appropriate environment within which students can engage with the issues and with each other. There has been little research conducted in civic education using a social constructivist approach. Starkey & Saviddes (2009) evaluated ways in which of students in an online Master’s program were learning about citizenship and developing intercultural awareness in spite of the lack of face-to-face interaction. In this study, they employed qualitative research methods with interview and deployed instruments for analyzing constructivist learning to evaluate the extent to which students were constructing knowledge through online discussions from Gunawardena, Lowe and Anderson’s (1997) model, as well as learning from research-led teaching materials. They also analyzed
online discussions for evidence of social presence, including the interventions of the course tutor. The finding showed that Master students in an online civic education program were able to explore issues of citizenship and social justice at least as effectively as in some class rooms’ seminars. The researchers claimed that the interaction in the discussions moved from phases I through phases V in the Gunawardena, Lowe & Anderson (1997) model, even though the students skipped phase IV. They concluded that online socialization facilitates discussion which in turn favors can promote higher-order learning the construction of knowledge.

2.8. Democratic Teaching in Civic Education

In general, one of the goals of civic education is to create knowledgeable citizens with civic skills, civic values and civic dispositions. Public schools and universities should and can play a role in that process (Dewey, 1916; Gutman, 1987; Hahn, 1998; Patrick, 1999; Crick, 2000), to enable the students to be effective in their democracy (Apple & Benne, 1995; Parker, 1996; Patrick, 1999; Print, 1999).

One of the key elements to sustain a democratic life is civil society, and education may have a role in it (Dahl, 1998; Putnam, 2000). Dewey (1916) asserted that, to maintain a democracy, citizens need participatory dispositions that are learned through practice in school and the community. He also argued that experiential learning was the most effective way for students to learn in schools, including learning to be an active citizen in a democracy. According to Dewey (1916), “a democracy is more than a form of government; it is primarily a mode of associated living, of conjoint communicated experience” (p. 87).

When we discuss civic education and democratic teaching, there are two common perceptions of democracy that are mutually interdependent: one is democracy as a form of government, and is democracy as a philosophy for and the basis of a way of living (Print, Ørnstrøm, & Nielsen, 2002). Democracy as a form of government is characterized by free and fair election, division and separation of powers, the rule of law, human rights, freedom of speech, and so on. Meanwhile, democracy as a way of living is concerned with willingness to compromise, tolerance, a willingness to listen to and be
influenced by arguments, maintaining a civil society, acceptance of other attitudes and opinions, trust, and so forth. Essentially, this perspective is based upon those values that allow a democracy to function effectively and engage citizens (Print, Ørnstrøm, & Nielsen, 2002).

Those two perceptions support each other; without a legal and institutional framework a democratic lifestyle cannot effectively exist, and vice versa (Print, Ørnstrøm, & Nielsen, 2002). For an effective education for democratic citizenship, the two perceptions are considered necessary and important. Successful democracies are mostly based on the values of democratic lifestyle, and democratic teaching tries to develop those values while, in the process, modeling democratic ideals and ways of being (Print, Ørnstrøm, & Nielsen, 2002).

Democratic teaching is a forum for democratic efforts to make the school a center of learning about democracy through a democratic process. Briefly, democratic teaching inspires a learning process that is based on democratic values, namely respect for the individual to uphold justice, thereby implementing equality of opportunity across the diversity of students enrolled in the course. In practice, the learners should be positioned as human beings; they should be respected for their ability and given the opportunity to develop their potential. Therefore, democratic teaching requires an open atmosphere, trust and genuine mutual respect in its teaching and learning processes. In order to do so, it needs to avoid a rigid learning environment full of tension loaded with commands and instructions that make students become passive, listless, bored and disengaged.

A democratic education also entails sharing power within the classroom (Mattern, 1997). Sharing power with students means offering them real choices about course content and process. According to Mattern (1997), democratic education is necessary because it better enables the development of democratic skills and dispositions. If students engage routinely in educational practices that teach passivity, they internalize these traits and accept them as normal. Alternatively, teaching critical intelligence, creative problem-solving skills and a critical stance toward social norms requires educational practices that develop these traits in the classroom. Additionally, many
students learn through practical experience. Democratic theory might more easily be learned and understood deeply by including some experience in the practice of democracy and using this experience as a basis for critical reflection and analysis.

The classroom can be used as a laboratory in which students learn democracy by practicing it. Soder (1996) asserted that implementing principles of democracy in classroom practice provides students with a context for understanding and developing the dispositions of citizenry in a democratic society. In their cross-national studies on civic education, Torney-Purta, et al. (1975; 2001) reported that a democratic climate of classrooms has a positive impact on students' civic knowledge. A similar report was also found in a study from Hahn (1998), who concluded that a democratic classroom in a civic education program has a contribution to democratic preparation in community. She asserted that:

... classroom climates that foster open inquiry and are reinforced by school climates that encourage participatory civic behaviors can together give young people the opportunity to experience democratic life. ... Students learn the theory of democracy by experiencing it in practice. Through a process of deliberation, reflection and communication they develop commitments to the common good and to intellectual freedom, where diversity is valued. Preparation for adult civic life is school civic life in which the political and associational lives of the community and of individuals are joined. (p. 247)

To promote education for democratic citizenship, a conducive and positive classroom is essential. The students need to experience an environment of security and trust where they can experience and practice their democratic skills. Hahn (1998) also found a positive correlation between an open classroom culture and the development of civic education:

... when students report that they frequently discuss controversial issues in their classes, perceive that several sides of issues are presented and discussed, and feel comfortable expressing their views, they are more likely to develop attitudes that have the potential to foster later civic participation than are students with such experiences. (p. 233)

Democratic teaching also gets a positive reaction from students. In Matters’ (1997) study, most of the students felt satisfied with democratic teaching in his class on
democratic theory. Eighty percent of the students from this study agreed or strongly agreed that democratizing the classroom helped them learn about democracy.
Chapter 3.

Research Methodology

3.1. Introduction

In this study I used a qualitative case study methodology to support my analysis of the online civic education tutorial at Universitas Terbuka (UT). I used this approach to describe the state of affairs in the online tutorial for the civic education course at UT. This chapter is structured as follows: First, I revisit the research questions and the task set out for this study. Second, I discuss the rationale for using a qualitative approach with interviews and briefly contextualize the literature review. Third, I provide a description of the specific research setting and the recruitment of the participants for this study. Fourth, I illustrate the process of data collection and describe the method I used for interviewing. Fifth, I explain the technique I used for data analysis. Finally, I discuss the ethical considerations of the study.

3.2. Research Questions

My study is focused on developing an online course in the civic education program using a social constructivist approach for UT that will expand upon the existing program and better meet the needs and desires of students. The intent is to explore the question: How can a social constructivist approach for an online civic education tutorial be implemented at Universitas Terbuka, Indonesia? From this question, I would like to explore three specific questions as follows:

1. What is the nature of the current online civic education tutorial at Universitas Terbuka?
2. What is the rationale for changing the teaching and learning approach of the online civic education tutorial at Universitas Terbuka through a social constructivist approach?

3. How would a social constructivist approach be implemented in the teaching and learning process of the online civic education tutorial at Universitas Terbuka?

### 3.3. Design of the Study

In this study I used a qualitative case study method that includes interviewing participants in the online civic education course at UT, together with a review of the research literature regarding the design of online education courses. I analyzed the literature for new directions, new developments, and new insights in the area in order to make recommendations for further developing and improving the online tutorial of the civic education course at UT using a social constructivist approach.

However, I do not just make recommendations based on reviewing the literature. As a faculty member at Faculty of Social and Political Sciences in UT, I had experiences conducting online tutorials for several courses for a few years. Even though civic education was not a course that I taught, I was familiar with online tutorials at UT in general. Moreover, I also interviewed students, instructors, and administrators at UT about their experiences with the online tutorial. Thus, this study reports not only my experiences, but includes the experiences of several people who have been involved in the civic education course at UT. Based on that, I also use a qualitative case study methodology to develop this study. The case becomes methodological tool for my thesis. The boundaries of the case are online tutorial of civic education at UT as a single and unique case. The qualitative case study is something that I developed in order to offer better recommendations later in this study.

Qualitative research techniques have been employed by educational researchers for over three decades. Creswell (2009) described qualitative research as “a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (p. 4). Corbin and Strauss (2008) claimed that the qualitative research can be used to step beyond the known and enter into the world of participants, to get...
their inner experience, to see the world from their perspectives. Qualitative research involves collection of a variety of empirical materials, such as interviews, personal experiences, life stories, case studies, observations, and so on, that describe routine and problematic moments and meaning in peoples’ lives (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011).

According to Stake (1995), in a qualitative case study the researcher wants to appreciate the uniqueness of the case and its interaction with its contexts. Case study allows the researcher to gain greater understanding and appreciation of subjective interpretations of the case, ‘interpretation in context’ (Merriam, 1998)

Likewise, Abramson (1992) underlined that a case study method can be selected for what it can reveal about a unique phenomenon and knowledge.

First, since such data are rare, they can help elucidate the upper and lower boundaries of experience. Second, such data can facilitate prediction by documenting infrequent, non-obvious, or counterintuitive occurrences that may be missed by standard statistical (or empirical) approaches. Finally, atypical cases are essential for understanding the range or variety of human experience, which is essential for understanding and appreciating the human condition (p. 33).

Simons (2009) has explained the definition of case study research. According to her, case study is “an in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives of the complexity and uniqueness of a particular project, policy, institution, program or system in a ‘real life’ context. It is research-based, inclusive of different methods and is evidence-led. The primary purpose is to generate in-depth understanding of a specific topic (as in a thesis), program, policy, institution or system to generate knowledge and/or inform policy development, professional practice and civil or community action” (p. 17).

Case studies can be categorized from their discipline framework and the nature of how they are written up (Simons, 2009). For instance, Merriam (1988) characterized case studies into descriptive, interpretative, and evaluative. Descriptive case studies present detailed information of the phenomenon under investigation. This type of case study is atheoretical but it is helpful in presenting information in the areas where little research has been conducted. Interpretative case studies also contain descriptive data, but also are used to develop conceptual categories or to illustrate, support, or challenge
theoretical assumptions that held before the data gathering. Meanwhile, *evaluative case studies* involve description, explanation and judgement. This type of case study emphasizes information to produce judgement. In this study, I use a descriptive case study, because I investigate the phenomenon of the current online tutorial of civic education at UT and the experience of students and instructors who taught that course.

Case studies begin with the purposeful selection of a case or site followed by the organization of data-gathering procedures. They can be undertaken by documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observations, participant observation and physical artifacts, or any combination of these (Yin, 2009).

In this study, I collect the data by interviewing participants. Interviewing research participants is often used as a tool to gather data by qualitative researchers. It is a useful way for researchers to collect a lot of data in a relatively short of period of time, and so it is often considered to be an effective research strategy (Marshall & Rossman, 1995). In qualitative research, the interview is a construction site for knowledge. Interviews are conducted as a means of exploring the personal beliefs and understandings of individuals and groups. The purpose of interviewing is to enter the other person’s perspective, which is meaningful, knowable, and explicit. It is to find out what is on someone’s mind and gather their stories (Patton, 2002). Moreover, Silverman (1993) argued that the qualitative interview is a form that allows a researcher “to generate data which give an authentic insight into peoples’ experiences” (p. 91).

In my study, the interview is used to gain information about participants’ experiences in the civic education course at UT. I use all these interviews with focus group of students, six tutors and two administrators to find out in a systematic way the opinions of the current of civic education course. The reasons I do that because I assumed that the course is not meeting the needs of the students, so I want to verify that in the more systematic qualitative study. The result of qualitative study showed me through the coding and the number of themes that there are issues around the course that need to be resolved.

Besides using qualitative methods with interviews, I also review literature to gain knowledge about previous research and writing related to my topic. I review the
educational literature for guidance in proceeding with the development of a social constructivist approach, civic education and the online learning theories and concepts. Fink (2005) defined a research literature review as a “systematic, explicit and reproducible method for identifying, evaluating, and synthesizing the existing body of completed and recorded work produced by researchers, scholars, and practitioners” (p. 3). The effective literature review should include the following characteristics: a) “methodologically analyze and synthesize quality literature,” b) “provide a firm foundation to a research topic,” c) “provide a firm foundation to the selection of research methodology,” and d) “demonstrate that the proposed research contributes something new to the overall body of knowledge or advances in the research field’s knowledge-base” (Levy & Ellis, 2006, p. 182).

The literature review is important for research, because from the literature review, we can know and understand what is currently known about a topic, and what is needed to be known (Fink, 2005). This is an important part of scholarship; by definition, it is a collaborative activity in that we work with and contribute to the knowledge of others. A significant portion of my research consists of the review and development of a model and its foundations for the online civic education tutorial at UT. I would like to know what is currently known about citizenship education, a social constructivist approach for citizenship education, as well as online and distance learning using a social constructivist approach. From reading relevant literature reviews, I can develop ideas based on past theories and research.

One of the steps of a research literature review is selecting references or bibliographic, article databases, web sites, and other sources (Fink, 2005). In my study I have been introduced to literature about citizenship, civic education, critical thinking, distance education, social constructivist learning approach, adult learners, and democratic teaching, through library catalogue searches, library journal database searches, Google Scholar web sites, reference lists contained in articles, and recommendations from other scholars or expert advice, including supervisors and fellow graduate students. I would like to know what other scholars think and say about those topics.
After my reviews, I synthesized the results descriptively. Descriptive syntheses are interpretations of the review’s findings based on the reviewer’s experience and the quality and content of the available literature (Fink, 2005). I also did an evaluation of various findings and concepts that I discovered from reviewing the literature.

3.4. Research Setting and Participants

3.4.1. The Setting

My goal was to develop an online civic education tutorial at UT Indonesia, using a social constructivist approach and a democratic form of teaching. UT is an open and distance learning university in Indonesia. Its teaching and learning processes use printed and non-printed materials. Civic education is a compulsory course for all of UT’s students from all faculties. UT has four faculties, namely the Faculty of Economics, Faculty of Social and Political Sciences, Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Sciences, and Faculty of Teacher Training and Science Education. There are approximately 3000 students who take the civic education course in every semester.

Civic education is a basic and general course. It can be considered as a lower-level course. It is managed by the Faculty of Social and Political Sciences, under the Administration Studies Department. Printed material in the form of a ‘module’ of civic education is the primary resource for students in their studies of civic education. Students read this material at their own pace independently, and at the end of the semester they write an examination based on the module.

To assist students in their learning, almost all courses at UT, including the civic education course, have an online tutorial. The duration of the online tutorial is eight weeks, part of the entire duration of the course, which is 16 weeks. Because of the large number of students who take the course, the Computing Center Unit at UT, which facilitates the online tutorial activities for all faculties, divides the students in the civic education course into several classes. Each class consists approximately of 300 students. Ideally, each class is conducted by one different tutor. However, because there
are not so many tutors of civic education available, one tutor has to conduct more than one class.

During the eight weeks of the online tutorial activities, the civic education tutors provide initiations, discussions and assignments. The initiation is an activity where the tutors present reading materials for students that enrich the materials from the printed material or module that is used for civic education course. The purpose of the initiation is to ensure that students can have a better understanding about the content of the module. Meanwhile, the discussion is an activity where the tutors provide the learners with problems and they discuss the problems among themselves. The tutors also give the learners opportunities to post questions or ask questions to be discussed among them. In the discussion, tutors take a position as facilitators. The tutors will give their feedback or comments during the discussions. Through the discussions, it is hoped that the learners practice their critical thinking and can develop understanding about some civic concepts and issues. The assignment is an activity where the tutors provide questions and the learners have to answer those questions. There are three assignments during the online tutorial activities. The assignments are posted in the week three, week five and week seven. The tutors expect the learners to work individually, not collaboratively, when they answer the questions.

The learning method in online tutorial of civic education at UT in some extent can be seen as a social constructivist approach. However, I think it is just partial. Although there have already been some discussions and dialogues, the learners may have not constructed new knowledge collaboratively based on their reflection and their own and other’s experiences.

3.4.2. The Participants

My participants in this study consist of five parties. They are UT’s faculty members and UT’s students who are involved in civic education course; also, I include the administrators who are dealing with UT’s academic policies for online tutorials. First, I interviewed instructors or tutors who are involved in a current civic education course. Second, I interviewed students who have taken the online tutorial of the civic education
course. Third, I interviewed an assistant for the vice rector of academic affairs. Fourth, I interviewed an assistant for vice rector of student affairs. Finally, I interviewed the chairman of the Administration Studies Department in the Faculty of Social and Political Sciences.

My first research participants are instructors of the civic education course. In the second semester of 2012, there was a change in the number of instructors involved in the online tutorial of civic education course, because the number of students has increased at that time. UT has a new policy governing the distribution of classes in online tutorials. The policy said that each class should not consist of more than 300 students, so if there is a course that has more students enrolled than that, then a new class should be opened. During the time I collected the data, the course had more than 3000 students, and it has seven instructors. I interviewed six of them. They are from the Faculty of Teacher Training and Educational Science and the Faculty of Social and Political Sciences. I also asked the instructors about their experiences in online civic education tutorials, such as asking how they managed the online class.

The profiles of tutors who I interviewed are as follows: first is the lead instructor of civic education at Faculty of Social and Political Sciences, UT. She has a Masters degree in Public Administration from the University of Indonesia. She also has been trained as a civic education instructor at a workshop that was held by Directorate General of Higher Education, Ministry of National Education Republic of Indonesia. She has been teaching the civic education course at UT for more than five years. Second is an assistant instructor of the civic education course in the Faculty of Social and Political Sciences. He has a Masters degree in Public Administration from the University of Indonesia. He has been teaching civic education at UT for two years. Third is another assistant instructor of the civic education course in the Faculty of Social and Political Sciences, at Pangkal Pinang, UT’s Regional Office, in Bangka Belitung Province. She also has a Masters degree in Public Administration, and joined the teaching of the course two years ago. The other three instructors are from the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education Science in Social Science Education. They had just joined the online tutorial team for civic education one semester prior to the time I interviewed them.
The other key participants for this research are the policy makers at UT. For this matter, I interviewed the chair of the Administration Science Department in the Faculty of Social and Political Sciences, where he gave me information about why and how civic education has been chosen as one of the courses in online tutorials.

For other policy makers, I intended to interview the vice rector for academic affairs and vice rector for student affairs. However, because of their busy schedules, I was referred to their assistants. The office of the Vice Rector for Academic Affairs is the one who makes academic policies regarding online tutorials, such as which courses will have online tutorials, because not all courses have online tutorials. Meanwhile, the office of vice rector for student affairs coordinates the implementation of online tutorials in the field.

My participants for focus group discussion are UT students who have already taken the online tutorial in the civic education course. There are a lot of students who have taken this course, because it is a mandatory course. However, I just focused on and contacted the students who live in Jakarta or Tangerang, Banten, because these locations are close to the UT campus, the place where I conducted the interviews. From about 260 students who I asked to be my participants, ten of them agreed to be involved in my study. On the day of the interview, only seven were able to attend. Two other students could not make it because of personal issues. Therefore, my participants for the focus group discussion were seven people.

I feel that it was important to interview all five parties because they can help me to obtain better understanding of the current teaching and learning situation in the online tutorial of civic education course at UT and how I can use the social constructivist approach and a democratic form of teaching in the tutorial. The results from the interviews were used as a guide for my analysis of the civic education course at UT.

From the instructors, I can learn in more detail about their teaching experiences in the online tutorials of the civic education course, i.e., how they manage the class and the activities in the tutorial. Those experiences gave me a picture of the current situation of the tutorials, and ideas about what strategies I can employ in the course. Students’ voices were also crucial, because from them learned about their experiences, their
opinions, their critiques, their comments and their hopes regarding the civic education course. Their input gave me insight about how an online civic education course at UT can be developed. Finally, from the assistants to the vice rectors, I learned about UT’s policies towards online tutorials, academically and practically. The information from them helped me gain knowledge about the background of the civic education course, i.e., how the courses are chosen and how tutors are recruited for the online tutorials at UT.

3.5. Data Collection Techniques

3.5.1. Interviews

The methods of interviews that I choose are individual interviews or in-depth interviewing and a focus group interview. The type of interview that I applied for my research is an open ended and semi-standardized or semi-structured interview format. Kvale (2007) defined a semi-structured interview as “an interview with the purpose of obtaining descriptions of the life world of the interviewee with respect to interpreting the meaning of the described phenomena” (p. 10). Berg (2009) asserted that the semi-standardized interview involves the implementation of a number of predetermined questions and special topics. Typically, these questions are asked to each interviewee in a systematic and consistent order, but the interviewers are allowed to probe far beyond the answers to their prepared standardized questions (Berg, 2009).

In this type of interview, questions can reflect awareness that individuals understand the world in varying ways (Berg, 2009). Therefore, researchers approach the world from the subject’s perspective. The semi-structured interview is flexible. It allows the interviewers to ask a series of structured questions, permits comparison across interviews, and allows interviewers to pursue areas spontaneously initiated by the interviewee (Berg, 2009), and in that way it gives power to the interviewee. Because of these advantages, I think it is useful for me to interview my participants using a semi-structured interview.
**Individual Interview**

I used an individual interview format with open-ended semi-structured questions for interviewing the instructors that are involved in the online civic education tutorial and the vice rector’s assistants. I chose an individual interview because I can explore their personal views, experiences in details. As Gaskell (2000) asserted, there are a number of advantages of individual interviews. First, the interview can be scheduled at a time and place convenient to the participants. Second, it is feasible to focus attention on a particular individual in a one-to-one interview. With the single participant, far richer detail about personal experiences, decisions and action sequences can be elicited, with follow-up probe questions focusing on motivations in the context of detailed information about the particular circumstances of the person. What the interviewee says, and how the interview develops, can be related to other relevant characteristics of the individual (Gaskell, 2000).

**Focus Group Interview**

Gaskell (2000) suggested that a focus group is a sub-category of interview, describing it as a group interview. Patton (2003) defined a focus group interview as “an interview with a small group of people on a specific topic” (p. 385). Typically, the number of participants in a focus group interview is four to twelve, although the ideal number of participants is six to ten people with similar backgrounds who participate in the interview for one to two hours, with one or two leaders or moderators who ask questions of the group (Patton, 2002; Warren & Karner, 2010). In addition, Gaskell (2000) suggested:

The objective of a focus group is to stimulate the participants to talk and respond to each other, to compare experiences and impressions and to react to what other people in the group say ... and as such the meanings or representations that emerge are more influenced by the social nature of the group interaction rather than relying on the individual perspective, as in the depth interview.... Group interaction may generate emotion, humor, spontaneity and creative insights ... the focus group is a more naturalistic and holistic setting in which the participants take account of the views of others in formulating their responses and commenting on their own and other experiences. (p. 46)

Patton (2002, p. 386) also suggested advantages of focus group interviews for qualitative inquiry:
• Data collection is cost-effective. You can gather information from several people in a short time, instead of only one, significantly increasing sample size.

• Interactions among participants enhance data quality. Participants tend to provide check and balances on each other, which can remove false or extreme views.

• The extent to which there is a relatively consistent, shared view or great diversity or views can be quickly assessed.

• Focus groups tend to be enjoyable to participants, drawing on human tendencies as social animals.

I used a focus group interview for interviewing UT’s students who have already taken the online tutorial of civic education. I choose focus group interview for interviewing students because I think that these are relatively easy ways to generate knowledge, gain more ideas, and garner experiences from the students.

Research Interview Protocols

In this research, I completed interviews with a number of participants. There were two ways that I used to contact them. First, for students, an invitation was sent by e-mail. I obtained the e-mail addresses from the student data base at UT’s Computing Center Unit with permission from UT. I specifically chose the students from UT’s Jakarta Regional Office. I sent e-mails to about 260 students who reside in Jakarta and Tangerang, Banten Province, and who have taken the online tutorial of the civic education course in the second semester in 2011 and the first semester in 2012. About ten students responded. After I had ten students who were willing to participate, I set a date to conduct the focus group interview. The interview was conducted at UT Pondok Cabe, Tangerang, Indonesia. However, on the day of the interview, only seven students came. The other three students were unable to come because of health reasons.

In the interview, I began with some conversation about the nature of my research questions and I explained my topic, and also found ways to engage with these students in discussing my research interests. Using the focus group method seems the most appropriate way to proceed in this stage of the research process because it affords a more open-ended means of exploring their opinions and ideas.
Second, for the instructors and other participants, I asked them verbally about their willingness to participate in my research, because they are all my colleagues at UT, even though I also send a formal request to them via e-mail. The guiding questions were prepared and were generated from the research questions. All interviews were taped and later transcribed. These interview transcripts were later coded and interpreted.

### 3.6. Data Analysis

The interviews with the research participants were conducted in Bahasa Indonesia, and I transcribed them all also in Bahasa Indonesia. I transcribed long recorded conversations; however, only the important portions of the data transcription to be used in writing the thesis were translated into English. I found that transcribing was time consuming and creating an appropriate translation from Bahasa Indonesia to English was a challenging task.

For data analysis, I interpreted data from the interviews with research participants. Interpretation of the story is needed in qualitative research to make the research results meaningful to both the participants in the study and the readers of the report (Quartaroli, 2009). My data interpretation was in an ongoing, iterative cycle (Quartaroli, 2009). It was a process of continual questioning, reading, re-reading and looking for pattern. In this process, I found that in one point, I still needed more data from one participant. Therefore, I interviewed the participant again until the research questions were answered.

The activity involved in analyzing data is to assign codes to items of the text. A code is a word or phrase as a label for categorizing, compiling, organizing, and comparing data (Quartaroly, 2009). In this study, I used coding with a bottom-up coding approach, or open coding (Quartaroly, 2009). That was, I read and re-read interview transcripts, letting the codes emerge from the words in the text. After that, I identified patterns that emerged from initial coding. This could be described as axial coding or focus coding (Quartaroly, 2009). Through this process of reading, coding, and focus coding, I created categories that could be used to responses into particular characterizations or themes, and answer my research questions. I also analyzed my
data with guidance of the theoretical framework that I used, as recommend by Patti Lather (1986), which “permits use of a priori theoretical frameworks, but which keeps a particular framework from being the container into which the data is poured” (p. 267).

3.7. Ethical Considerations

The objects of inquiry in an interview are humans. Therefore, we have to be careful to avoid any harm to the participants (Fontana & Frey, 2005). The knowledge produced depends on the social relationship of interviewer and interviewee, which again rests on the interviewer’s ability to create a stage where the subject is free and feels safe to talk of private events for later public use. This again requires a delicate balance between the interviewer’s concern of pursuing interesting knowledge and ethical respect for the integrity of the interview subject (Fontana & Frey, 2005).

The ethical concerns are about the topics such as informed consent, where the researchers receive consent from the participants after having carefully and truthfully informed them about the research; rights to privacy, where the researchers protect the identity of the participants; and protection from harm, where the researchers protect the participants from harm, either physical, emotional, or any other kind of harm (Fontana & Frey, 2005).

Since my study involved human participants, I also consider these ethical issues. I performed an Ethical Review application and had it approved by the Office of Research Ethics of Simon Fraser University. Participation in my research was entirely voluntary. I made efforts in the mailing or email, and in the focus groups and interviews to re-assure those contacted that deciding not to participate would not in any way reflect on their willingness or abilities to engage in civic education or carry out their civic responsibilities.

I informed potential candidates that participation and any responses or input from participants was strictly confidential and would not be shared with any other individuals or agencies; the information they supplied would be used solely to help in my research in designing an effective and meaningful the online civic education tutorial at UT. I stressed that I wanted to design a program that increases their knowledge of and participation in
civic affairs. I re-assured participants that they needed not disclose anything they felt was personal, confidential, or that they did not wish to disclose.

3.8. Summary

In this chapter I described how qualitative research with interviews, a conceptual analysis, and a review of the literature was used to develop understanding and data to be used in developing a potential online civic education tutorial at UT. The interviews of instructors, students and other participants have been used as valuable inputs for me to understand the civic education course, their involvement in the online civic education tutorial, and their ideas about the civic education course and its online tutorial. The research findings have offered me opportunities to develop ideas about a new civic education course. The literature review was used as guidance, in both developing the theoretical model for the present study, and in providing a foundation for a pedagogical approach of the online civic education tutorial.

For the interview method, I used individual or in-depth interviews and a focus group discussion to gather information from my participants. I used an open-ended and semi-structured interview format, because this method was flexible and gave me an opportunity to gain more information and knowledge from the participants. Because of the objects of inquiry in the interviews are human, I also consider the ethical concerns, such as their consent, privacy, and protection from any harm.

I think the combination of literature reviews and the interviews as data for my research was suitable because this combination gave me direction and input for developing an effective and meaningful online civic education tutorial at UT.
Chapter 4.

The Findings: The Current Online Civic Education Tutorial at Universitas Terbuka

4.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a brief description of the online tutorial at Universitas Terbuka (UT). It includes a description of the nature of the current online tutorial in the Civic Education course and the findings from interviews about the experiences and opinions of students, instructors and administrators regarding the online tutorial. This chapter is organized in a manner that speaks back to the first research question of the study, which concerns the nature of the online tutorial for the Civic Education course at UT.

This chapter begins with the description of the nature of the online tutorial at UT in general. It also elaborates on the development of the Civic Education course at UT. Then, the chapter presents the findings about the online civic education tutorial, including the experiences of the students who have taken the online tutorial of civic education and their thoughts about civic education and its online tutorial. This chapter also explores the opinions and experiences of the tutors who have been conducting the online civic education tutorial and their perspectives on a social constructivist approach for civic education, the learning theory that has become my foundation for this study.

4.2. Online Tutorial

UT is a distance teaching university where the students learn independently. Independent learning is not the same as self-study. Independent learning does not necessary mean that students learn by themselves, but the initiative and motivation for
learning should come from the students themselves. Independent learning is not easy for some people. In order to facilitate students in their independent learning process and to enhance their learning achievement, it is important for the distance education institution to provide learning support with an affordable and accessible system for its students, since students vary in terms of their age, educational level, study skills, readiness and ability to study on their own (Adnan & Padmo, 2009; Universitas Terbuka, 2009).

Learning support services in particular are the services provided by the educational institution for students studying their course materials or when the learning process actually takes place (Belawati, 2000). Among the learning supports offered by distance education is the tutorial. In distance education, the tutorial can be taken either face-to-face or at a distance by means of various media. A face-to-face tutorial is an actual meeting between students and tutors at a given time and place. A distance tutorial can be a synchronous or asynchronous online meeting that may be supplemented with various media, such as radio, television, telephone, correspondence, or the Internet (Adnan & Padmo, 2009).

UT provides both face-to-face and distance tutorials supported by various media. In accordance with the rapid development of information and communication technology, UT continuously develops and uses Internet networks for its learning support, which is called “UT Online.” The use of the Internet for learning support helps to overcome the constraint of distance and time. UT online has various facilities to help students in administrative and academic matters. In administrative matters, the services include entry and course registration, as well as maintaining a database of students’ records. In academic matters, one of the services is the online tutorial (Universitas Terbuka, 2009).

The online tutorial was implemented in UT in 1999 using an electronic mailing list. By the end of 2002, the electronic mailing list system was replaced by the more efficient and comprehensive Manhattan Virtual Classroom (MVC) software. In September 2002, an electronic tutorial system using the MVC application software was adapted with the new title, “Online Tutorial.” In 2004, this MVC-based online tutorial system was replaced again with a new Moodle learning management system (Darmayanti, 2004). This system is still in use at the time of this writing. In this new
online tutorial system, the students can be served individually, and they can also have access to other learning services, such as many self-supporting resources and online tutorials. The purposes of the online tutorial for students at UT are to: 1) optimize the use of the Internet to provide learning support services to students; 2) allow the process of distance learning to incorporate more interactive and communicative capabilities; 3) provide an alternative option for students who have access to the Internet to obtain optimal learning support services.

There is research literature supporting the advantages of online tutorials (Zhang, Perris, & Yeung, 2005). Idris (1993) argued that an online tutorial could promote active learning, particularly for students who work in isolation. Brown and Duguid (1996) discussed how an online tutorial could promote an environment where individuals readily learn from each other, discovering that others share common problems while discussing topical issues in depth. Online tutorials also have the advantage of flexibility in minimizing time constraints, since students have opportunities to get assistance without having to wait for a set class time or office hours (Burke, 1996, Laaser, 1998). For students who have difficulty speaking up in face-to-face classes, online tutorials provide them opportunities to develop their ‘voice’ (Burke, 1996). Holmberg (2008) asserted that the form of tutoring in distance education includes leading discussions and commenting on students’ contributions to online conferences and discussions as well as their answers to questions in the lessons. Furthermore, Holmberg (2008) stated that tutoring is important because it helps students understand explanations of work, generally facilitating their learning and supporting their motivation to learn.

At UT, the online tutorial is a learning support for students to gain a better understanding of the materials in their courses. This kind of tutorial also helps students who wish to achieve higher grades, since it contributes additional marks to the final grade. Unfortunately, the advantages of the online tutorial are not able to be enjoyed by all students of UT. UT’s students are spread around the Indonesian archipelago, but even today many remote areas still do not have Internet infrastructures. Therefore, the online tutorial is not compulsory for students.
A series of online tutorials usually begins two months before the final exam in each semester. For the regular programs, it is held from early March to the end of April in the first semester and from early September to the end of October in the second semester (UT’s Academic Calendar, 2013). The online tutorial activities run for eight weeks. The activities are different for each course depending on the manner that tutors use to manage the activities. Basically, online tutorials have several features such as course overview, resources, topics for discussion, and assignments (Andriani, 2013). In the course overview, students can view the entire content of the course and the relations among the various sections. Resources include additional learning materials for students who have already studied in the modules. Discussion topics provide students with activities to master the course. Then, assignments are provided to evaluate students’ mastery of the course (Andriani, 2013). Activities in online tutorials include viewing the uploaded initiation materials, engaging in discussion forums with other students and tutors, and uploading results of tasks assigned by tutors (Andriani, 2013). The activities in each week include initiation, where the tutors will provide material enrichment based on the modules of the course. Every week there is a different topic for initiation. Also, there are discussion forums each week, together with three assignments given in weeks three, five and seven.

Even though UT’s Strategic Plan stated that all courses must have an online tutorial, there need to be priorities set. Thus, not all courses are supported by an online tutorial. There are some criteria that determine which courses will have an online tutorial. In my interview with the assistant to the Vice Rector of Academic Affairs (personal conversation, July 25, 2012), I was told that the general criteria include: the course is difficult for students; the modules are lacking in examples, lacking in illustration, and need further explanation; and the number of students who enroll and are active in the online tutorial from past semesters. Therefore, if there are numbers of students enrolling in a course with an online tutorial, but there are just a few who are active, the online tutorial will be dropped from the course. The criteria include how many students log on and participate actively in the discussions and submit the assignments during the online tutorial activities. From her explanation, the assistant to the Vice Rector of Academic Affairs did not specifically mention the minimum or the maximum numbers of students that should enroll in order for a course to continue to have an online tutorial. Because
the numbers of students who are enrolled in certain courses has increased, UT has
developed a policy that, if a course has more than 300 students, another section needs
to be created. Thus, one section can only consist of a maximum of 300 students.
Currently, more than 415 courses are supported by online tutorials (Universitas Terbuka,
2009).

Students who register in a course that has an online tutorial will automatically be
enrolled in the tutorial. To participate in the online tutorial, students must have their own
e-mail address as UT does not provide students with an e-mail address. Using their own
e-mail address, students must activate their online tutorial account first before they can
access the online tutorial. UT will synchronize the number of students who register and
the number of students who activate their online tutorial account until the end of the
second week of the online tutorial period. Students can only activate their account during
this period. After the tutorial is closed, students who are registered in a course and have
not activated their account cannot participate in the online course tutorial in that
semester. The process of synchronization affects the number of classes comprising 300
students who are enrolled in the online tutorials for that course. The number of online
tutorial classes in a semester only can be determined by the beginning of week 3 during
the online tutorial period, after the process of synchronization has ended. Many students
activate their account in the last days of the process of synchronization.

From my experience, not all students activate their account. Therefore, the
number of students who are logged on to the tutorial activities is fewer than the actual
number of the students registered in the course. In the early years, when the online
tutorial was launched at UT, only a few students actively participated in the discussions.
For example, in the online tutorial courses that I taught in 2007 and 2008, only 15
percent of the students participated fully in the online activities (Setiani, 2007; 2008).
There has been little if any research at UT investigating the reasons for this low level of
participation. Research by Budiwati (2007) and Susanti (2007) with Masters of Public
Administration students at UT found that low student participation in online tutorials was
due to students’ busy working schedules and limited abilities to use computers and the
Internet. These findings were also supported by Yuliana and Wardini (2011) who
investigated undergraduate students in the Agribusiness Program at UT, where
students’ accessibility and success in the online tutorials were low due to a variety of
factors, including low income levels, students’ residence, the availability of computers and Internet connections, and the difficulty of accessing the UT website. However, today the numbers of students who actively participate in online tutorials has increased considerably. One of the reasons I think is because today the students are more familiar with using the computer and the Internet is more accessible in some areas, especially in urban areas.

A tutor at UT is a content expert who has expertise related to a particular course and is classified similar to a teacher in the conventional (face-to-face) educational institution. A tutor for the online tutorial at UT is appointed by the Head of the Study Program within a Department in a Faculty to manage an online tutorial for a course. Usually, the tutor is an instructor who manages the course, either by developing the printed materials, reviewing them, or developing the examination for the course. However, for certain courses, a team of two or more tutors is appointed to handle the course. Such a course would usually be a high-level course, a course that requires significant practice and exercise, such as accounting, or a course that has two or more classes.

Tutors for the online tutorials come from UT as well as other universities or institutions. UT is aware that it may be necessary to hire tutors for online tutorials from outside to assist the existing tutors from UT in some courses. This is particularly relevant for courses that have more than one class, because there is a policy at UT stating that a lecturer at UT can only manage a maximum four courses per semester. In the case of an online tutorial, one class is equal as one course (personal communication with the assistant to the Vice Rector for Student Affairs, July, 2012).

To become a tutor in an online tutorial at UT requires training in how to manage the online tutorial using UT’s learning management system (Moodle). Managing online classes is certainly different from managing face-to-face classes. The training is necessary because usually the tutor candidates are recruited from local face-to-face teaching universities or conventional universities that might not be familiar with online classes. Therefore, to be able to fully utilize the vast functionalities and features available within the learning management system, it is important to provide the tutors with proper training and support. In addition, it is necessary that the tutors feel
comfortable and confident in using the learning management system to manage and improve their classes (Ahmed, 2011). The training also is provided to all UT’s academic staff to refresh their understanding of strategies and new methods in the development of the learning system for the online tutorial.

4.3. The Development of the Civic Education Course

4.3.1. The Development of Courses and Learning Materials

Course development and learning materials development and distribution are important aspects in any distance education system. The process begins with opening a study program, developing the curriculum and course materials and distributing the course materials (Universitas Terbuka, 2009). The variety and the number of courses in a study program in Indonesia’s distance education institution may expand and change depending on policies at the national, university and faculty levels, market demand, and trends in the disciplines themselves. The changes correspond with the concept of continuous improvement regulated by educational institutions (Wardani & Prayekti, 2009).

Distance education systems have been established to expand access to learning, using a variety of technologies. The philosophy of distance education is based on the premise that it should removes barriers to learning, and allows flexibility for students to learn what they want, when they want, and where they want. A variety of technologies have been used to deliver content for students to learn. The technology used can be in print and non-print formats. The print materials are usually in the form of modularized workbooks, and the non-print materials can be in various audio, video and computer formats (Universitas Terbuka, 2009).

In distance education, the course materials serve as the major learning resources for students. The availability of high quality learning materials is crucial to facilitate students’ learning processes at a distance. UT’s students learn from the learning materials delivered by the institution and from other accessible learning resources of other institutions. UT has developed multimedia learning materials for its
students, with printed materials representing the major media, supplemented with non-printed materials (Universitas Terbuka, 2009). UT develops its own printed materials (called modules) for all its courses. A four-credit course consists of 12 modules; a three-credit course consists of nine modules, and a two-credit course consists of six modules. Most of UT’s learning materials are written by experts from other universities. The authors are senior academics and experts from well-reputed state and private higher education institutions, and some of the printed materials are written by UT’s faculty members. The UT printed modules contain learning materials that students should study in accordance with learning purposes set in the course outline (Garis Besar Program Pengajaran or GBPP). The learning materials are known as complete self-learning or self-contained learning materials, meaning that students primarily only need to study those learning materials in order to achieve the learning goals (Universitas Terbuka, 2009).

There are two kinds of printed material development: new development and revision. New printed material development is usually carried out when a study program is initiated or there is a curriculum change or revision. In addition, revision of printed materials is conducted when the age of learning materials is about six years, a year before the contract between UT and the writer of the learning materials has expired. This means that the new learning materials are ready for use at the end of any particular contract. However, revision may be conducted earlier if there are some mistaken ideas found in the learning materials or the subject matter is out of date due to policy alteration or other fundamental issues. Input for revision comes from research, students and experts (Universitas Terbuka, 2009).

### 4.3.2. The Development of the Course and Learning Material for Civic Education

As I mentioned early in Chapter One, Civic Education in Indonesia is one of the compulsory courses that must be taught from primary to post-secondary school, so Civic Education is also a compulsory course for all students in all faculties at UT. It is one of the General Basic Courses (Matakuliah Dasar Umum) in universities besides *Pancasila*, Bahasa Indonesia, and Religion courses that are also compulsory for all students. Civic education in Indonesia is based on the State’s ideology, *Pancasila*, and the 1945
Constitution of Indonesia. The Government, in this case the Directorate General of Higher Education, determines the syllabus of the course, to be developed later by each university in practice.

The Civic Education course at UT developed in accordance to the curriculum and policy mandated by the Directorate General of Higher Education. As I also mentioned earlier, in the introduction, the course was developed under the form of Civics (Kewiraan), which was oriented to the military context of the nation. I believe this course had been in existence in all Study Programs at all Faculties at UT since 1989, when the Law of National Education System Number 2/1989 stated that this course was to be a compulsory course in university study. At that time, the course was just a two-credit course, consisting of six modules. The modules were developed and written by a faculty member at UT based on the syllabus from the Directorate General of Higher Education. The content of the curriculum in UT’s modules included: archipelago doctrine or archipelago concept (Wawasan Nusantara); national resilience; political and national strategy; and Indonesia’s defense and national security.

Civic education curriculum has developed over the years. After the Reformasi era in 1998 when the New Order regime under President Suharto fell after 32 years in power, there was a change in the civic education curriculum in universities to include new content such as democracy, human rights, and local autonomy. The Reformasi era was the turning point for Indonesia to be more democratic. The name of the course also changed from Civics (Kewiraan) to Civic Education (Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan).

With this development, UT also adjusted the course curriculum, and revised its printed material under a new name: Civic Education. The Civics (Kewiraan) course no longer existed. The additional curriculum content also affected the course credit, which increased from two to three credits. However, the content of the modules for these two credits was still the same as the former course, with the addition of new content, as mentioned above. The instructional objectives for this course were: (1) students are able to evaluate the nature, concepts, theories that are presented in the course; (2) students are able to discuss the elements that influenced and shaped the attitudes and behavior to defend the country; (3) students are able to apply patterns of thinking and behavior comprehensively on all aspects of national life; (4) students understand and support the
concept and practice of democracy towards the development of a civil society; and (5) students are able to apply knowledge responsibly towards humanity for interests of the nation and state of Indonesia (Amin, 2009).

UT has a policy that all its printed materials have to be revised every seven years or when there are any big changes in science and knowledge development for any courses. At the time of my data collection for this study, the modules of the Civic Education course had been through their second revision. This revision was necessary since the last revision was five years ago, and there was a need to adjust to new social and political developments in Indonesia. The curriculum for this revision is quite different from the previous edition. In this edition, *Pancasila* values become explicitly integrated into the modules. In the past, *Pancasila* was taught as a separate course, while now it is in to the Civic Education course at UT. The goals of the course modules are: (1) students as Indonesian citizens are able to demonstrate their civic knowledge, civic dispositions, and civic skills in the context of the following topics: civic virtues from *Pancasila*, the 1945 Constitution, and homeland commitment; and (2) students should develop the values of Unity (“Bhinneka Tunggal Ika”—Unity in Diversity—the national motto of Indonesia) enacted in an Indonesian citizen who is spirited, civilized, religious, humanistic, nationalistic, democratic, and fair in the context of a dynamic Indonesia (Winataputra, in press).

4.4. Online Civic Education Tutorial

The Civic Education course at UT is managed by the Department of Administration Science in the Faculty of Social and Political Sciences. The decision whether the course is supported by an online tutorial or not is made by the Chairman of Administration Science Department based on recommendations from Study Programs according to considerations surrounding the criteria mentioned above. From the analysis of students’ final grades, Civic Education was considered a difficult course because many students did not achieve adequate grades in this course, especially student teachers from Primary Education Program (personal conversation with the Chairman of the Administration Science Department, December 2012). From this consideration, the
Department decided that online tutorials were needed to assist students to comprehend the course.

It is not clear exactly when the online tutorial for the Civic Education course was implemented. I could not find the record for this. However, I assume it started in 2003 or 2004 when the learning management system, Moodle, was first developed. Because the Civic Education course is compulsory, it is a high-enrollment course, and the numbers tend to increase every semester. At the beginning of the implementation of the online tutorial, the number of students of this course was anywhere from four to six hundred students per semester. A few semesters later, the number of students had increased to around eight hundred, and they rose for several semesters to around fifteen hundred, and then increased again to two thousand. Currently, the student body at UT is approximately 500,000, so when a course is compulsory, the number of students enrolling could be as many as three thousand, which was the approximate enrolment at the time of this study (personal conversation with the lead tutor of Civic Education, June, 2012).

At the time I collected the data, the activities in the online civic education tutorial basically were similar to the other online tutorial courses’ activities. The tutors of the civic education course provided initiations every week for eight weeks of activities, which were summaries of the modules with addition of materials from other resources in civic education. The tutors also decided on different issues related to civic education to be discussed every week. For the assignments, the tutors asked the students to write mini papers with the topics related to the materials in the modules of civic education in week three, five and seven.

4.4.1. The Students

Generally, students taking distance education courses are adults, aged 25-40 years, who are working (Paul, 1990, Darmayanti, 2005). This is somewhat different from students in face-to-face education. A research study by Vermunt (1998) found that the average age of distance education students in the Netherlands was 36.2 years, while the average age of students in face-to-face education was 22.5 years. The UT’s student statistics in the first semester of 2009 showed similar characteristics, namely 64%
students were over 30 years old (Universitas Terbuka, 2009). In addition, the types of students at UT varied across fresh high school graduates, workers, and a few retired participants.

Most of UT’s students are adult working students, who have graduated from high school some time before beginning study at UT. The statistics in 2009 showed that 87 percent of students are working adults in various professions (Universitas Terbuka, 2009). These students’ characteristics are typical of students in the civic education course. As discussed in Chapter Two, adult learners are guided by particular principles of adult learning (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2011). They are assumed to be self-directed learners, have more experiences in life, prefer a problem solving orientation in learning, and have their own motivation to learn.

4.4.2. The Tutors

Tutors at UT have specific duties in conducting the activities of the online tutorial. Online tutors are required to design and develop eight initiation activities, together with three assignments to be posted online in Moodle during the eight weeks of the online tutorial sessions. The initiation activity materials could be a summary of the topics presented in the printed materials, a review of the current literature, an overview of important points in the topics, additional exercises, simulations or quizzes. These are usually followed by tutors’ discussion questions. Based on UT’s Guidance for Online Tutorial, tutors are expected to check the online tutorial website every day to participate in students’ discussions and give responses and feedback, if necessary. Tutors also are required to evaluate students’ answers and determine their final grade in the online tutorial (Universitas Terbuka, 2006).

When the online civic education tutorial was implemented, there was only one tutor who managed the online tutorial for the civic education course. This tutor was the faculty member who wrote the modules for the civic education course. However, after a few semesters, the tutor asked for another tutor to assist him, because it was difficult to manage the activities with so many students. So, at that time, there were two tutors who handled the tutorial for one class. Later, in 2009, the first tutor passed away, and the assistant tutor became the course manager and the lead tutor for the course. With a
large number of students in the course, it was almost impossible to manage this alone. According to UT’s policy about the number of students allowed in one class, the number of tutors for the online civic education course also increased, since the large enrollment was divided into several classes. For this development, the number of tutors was increased to three people.

The number of tutors was not necessarily the same as the number of classes. When I first collected data in June 2012, there were eleven classes for the online civic education tutorial. Ideally, the tutorial would be allotted among eleven tutors as well, but it was managed by only three tutors. It was a challenge to find eleven tutors for one course. There are limited numbers of faculty members in the Faculty of Social and Political Sciences, and of course there were very limited numbers of instructors who had the relevant background in civic education. Therefore, with only three tutors, each of them had to manage three to five classes in one semester. This situation changed the second time I had a chance to collect further data in December 2012. The number of classes for the online civic education tutorial had increased for that semester to fourteen, and the number of tutors had also increased to seven. Again, the tutors still had to handle more than one class. These additional tutors were recruited from the Faculty of Education Science and Teacher Training at UT.

The online civic education tutorials are run in parallel fashion. Even though there is more than one tutor, the initiation materials of the online civic education tutorial are designed and developed by the lead tutor. The lead tutor is the instructor who manages the civic education course in general. The other tutors who conduct the online tutorial in this course use the same initiation materials in their classes. However, they are allowed to add additional discussion questions. In this way, all students will receive the same tutorial materials every week.

The number of students registering in the civic education course fluctuates every semester. As a result, it is not clear in advance how many tutors will be needed in any particular semester. Although the approximate number of tutors can be predicted from the previous semester, one cannot reliably predict the number of tutors required, since the number of tutors depends on the number of students who activate their account in the Moodle system.
In addition, it is not always easy to find individuals who have the background and competencies and who are willing to become tutors in UT’s online civic education tutorial, as they are often drawn from other universities. I think this is because many of them are well-reputed academic staff from established universities, and they have a number of responsibilities and professional commitments. Further, the differences between teaching face-to-face and teaching online classes makes recruitment even more difficult. As I mentioned earlier, the number of students and classes in the online tutorial cannot be determined in advance, often not until the end of the second week of the online tutorial. This influences the number of tutors who should be involved in the course tutorial and the process of their recruitment, but this information is unavailable until the third week of the semester. If additional tutors are needed to manage additional classes that have not been anticipated, there is a challenge in finding competent new tutors who are willing to fill in the classes in the midst of the ongoing online tutorials. As an administrator in Faculty of Social and Political Sciences commented:

... kita hanya mencari orang siapa yang kira-kira backgroundnya administrasi publik dan bisa dadakan untuk matakuliah itu. Ya memang agak susah, agak sulit karena ada yang mau, ada yang tidak mau...Dan ini juga dialami oleh matakuliah lainnya, seperti bahasa Indonesia. Kalau ada orang yang mau dan kira2 bisa, ya sudah (direkrut). Dalam hal ini, kompetensinya itu kurang diperhatikan.

... we just looked for people who have an educational background in Public Administration, and the search could be incidental and not planned in advance. Yes, it could be difficult, because there was one who was willing (to be a UT online tutor) and there was one who was not. And this was also experienced in other courses, such as Bahasa Indonesia. If there was one person who was willing, then we recruit them. In this case, their competencies were not important (personal conversation with an administrator, translated, December 26, 2012).

Furthermore, he said:


We did not prepare [the recruitment of new tutors] from the beginning. Supposedly, we had prepared it from the beginning. Why? There were some requirements. To become an online tutor, at least
you have to follow tutor training. So, we just search for who was the one who had already done the training. And again, consequently, we did not really see their competencies (personal conversation with an administrator, translated, December 26, 2012).

Although it is relatively difficult to find the right tutors for the online civic education tutorial, I have observed that the tutors who have been hired to teach the tutorial are competent in the civic education’s field. They have at least some advanced education in civic education and have experience and dedication in managing online tutorials. All the online tutors for the civic education course are from UT.

The tutors for this tutorial change across semesters in number and personnel; therefore, the tutors I interviewed are those who were teaching when I collected the data in 2012. There was great variability in the time they had been tutoring. Among six tutors whom I interviewed, the lead tutor had been managing the online civic education tutorial the longest, that is, for more than nine semesters. Another tutor had been a tutor in the course for five semesters and one for two semesters. The rest of the tutors had just been hired for that semester.

4.4.3. Students’ Perspectives on the Civic Education Course and its Online Tutorial

In order to gather students’ perspectives on the civic education course and its online tutorial, I conducted a focus group interview with seven UT students who had taken the online civic education tutorial. Through the interviews, I had the opportunity to hear their views about the civic education course and tutorial at UT, their opinions about these, and their experiences in the online tutorial. Also, I wanted to hear their suggestions for improving the online tutorial. For this study, it was interesting to learn about students’ perspectives of the course because it helped me to recognize their understanding of civic education and what they think and feel about the civic education course. I did not want to make assumptions about students’ opinions and understandings. The students’ opinions are valuable and would become resources for my recommendations for the pedagogical approach for the online civic education tutorial. Since I interviewed only a small number of students, I cannot assume they would
represent the general opinions of all students in the civic education course and its online tutorial at UT.

**Perspectives on Civic Education and Civic Education Course**

Civic education in Indonesia is not widely considered to be an interesting and important course in university study. Some students feel the course is boring because it has been taught since primary school, although the topics that have been taught are not necessarily the same, since at the university level topics are more rigorous than in primary and secondary school levels. These assumptions are based on my experience when I was in public school and as an undergraduate student in university. What I felt of the civic education course at that time was that it was boring and the way the teachers taught the course was not interesting. What I remembered of the course was that the teachers only transmitted knowledge and the students only memorized it to be assessed in an examination later. After I obtained my Bachelor degree and worked for a while, I realized that the civic education course somehow was useful in forming my values and attitudes toward my country. However, at that time I wished that the way the course was taught would be more engaging and interesting.

As I mentioned earlier, the purpose of civic education in university as it is stated in the Decree of Directorate General of Higher Education is for students to become citizens and scholars who have awareness of nationalism, and who actively participate in building a peaceful life based on the state ideology of Pancasila, in accordance with their respective professional fields. This is the reason the civic education course is included in higher education in Indonesia—for the development of knowledge, values/attitudes and practices. A university student is a person who will have a higher level of education. As an Indonesian proverb says, the higher is the tree, the stronger is the wind. This means that, the more knowledge is acquired, the stronger is the temptation to abuse that knowledge. Civic education provides essential guidelines for students who will work in the future, so they are not lost and do not act improperly in their use of their knowledge.

In the focus group interview, I asked students’ for their opinions about the objectives of civic education. Most of the students thought that the purpose of civic education was to create good citizens who have the value of patriotism. From the
students’ opinions, the value of patriotism could be seen as increasing love for Indonesia and understanding their rights and responsibilities as citizens. As one student asserted:


The objectives of civic education are, [first], to build knowledge as citizens; the knowledge that we, as Indonesian people, have certain civic rules. … Second is to increase our love of the Republic of Indonesia. [In the modules of civic education], there is a lot of [knowledge], about national resilience or national security, how we defend Indonesia, and [preserve] our culture, how we know Indonesia more deeply. … I am personally informed [by such knowledge]. … For the implementation of this knowledge, it depends on whether they [the students] would like to apply it or not. Third is to build the moral structure of the nation (personal conversation with a student, translated, June 23, 2012).

Other students had similar opinions about civic education being the formation of patriotic citizens who are proud as Indonesian citizens and following the norms and laws of the country. As two students commented:

Pertama tujuan pendidikan kewarganegaraan adalah agar menjadi pribadi yang bangga menjadi warga negara Indonesia. Kedua, menempatkan diri dalam tatanan-tatanan atau undang-undang yang ada dalam lingkup negara ini.

First, the objective of civic education is to become a person who is proud of being an Indonesian citizen. Second, it is to put oneself under the orders or laws in this country (personal conversation with a student, translated, June 23, 2012).

Civic education for me [is] some basis or foundation for us as Indonesian citizens to properly act as good citizens. ... its objectives are to understand our rights and obligations as Indonesian citizens. Then, it is to develop our love for Indonesia (personal conversation with a student, translated, June 23, 2012).

Besides creating patriotic citizens, students also offered opinions that civic education was a means for them to understand civic knowledge and how to apply these understandings in everyday lives. One student said that one of the benefits of civic education was that it could make her think critically and rationally, not affected by other opinions about controversial issues. In addition, its purposes were to prevent social conflicts and separation among the provinces of Indonesia. As one of the students commented:


... the advantage that I can take [from civic education] is to respond to the national issues from Sabang to Merauke, such as [the issue] of corruption..... We can respond to them, not just following other people. We should think critically, reasonably and rationally. So, we cannot be influenced by opinions that can cause conflict. We know Pancasila, we know the 1945 Constitution, [thus] we become good citizens (personal conversation with a student, translated, June 23, 2012).

Another student also asserted:


For me, the objective of civic education is to prevent discordance. As we can see, nowadays there are many factions [in society]. This can be minimized if people really want to change. The conflicts will ruin our country (personal conversation with a student, translated, June 23, 2012).
For the course of civic education at UT, I also asked students' opinions about whether it was important and interesting for them. I found that most of the students thought the civic education course was important to be taken mostly because civic education had succeeded in making them patriotic citizens. For example, one student stated that the course has given her insights in details about *Pancasila* and the 1945 Constitution, which were important because they reminded her about the foundation of rights and responsibilities of citizenship. She asserted:


I think civic education is very important. Why is it [taught from elementary school until university] repeatedly? Perhaps it is for our reminder. As we remember, [the materials] would be imprinted in our minds. Why the Constitution and *Pancasila* are taught repeatedly? Because we are reminded constantly that *Pancasila* and the Constitution are our foundation. ... In the Constitution contains our rights and obligations as citizens (personal conversation with a student, translated, June 23, 2012).

Another student thought that the civic education course was very important because it had succeeded in increasing her nationalism. She said:

... menurut saya [pendidikan kewarganegaraan] sangat penting. Saya tidak tahu pendapat saya penting itu kenapa karena doktrin P4 itu berhasil untuk saya atau gimana, karena sejak SD saya memang belajar IPS, PMP. Saya merasa nasionalisme yang kuat pada saat SD. Pada saat reformasi saya merasa agak guncang. Sekarang saat reformasi saya kembali belajar lagi, dulu itu gimana apa yang salah. Orang suka atau tidak suka menganggap penting atau tidak penting itu, tergantung sejarah yang dilampaui. Seperti saya yang lahir tahun 80 mengalami jamannya Pak Harto. ... Beda dengan gak mengalami jamannya beliau. Jadi pentinglah untuk menumbuhkan nasionalisme itu. Saya masih cinta Indonesia.

... I think [civic education] is very important. I do not know why I think it is important because [I think] the indoctrination of *Pancasila* has succeeded in influencing me, because since elementary school I had been studying social sciences and *Pancasila* Moral Education. I feel my
nationalism was strong during elementary school. During the reform era, I [felt] quite shocked. Now, at the reform era, I study again, what is wrong with the old concept? People like or dislike [civic education] or they take it as important or unimportant, it depends on their history. Like me, I was born in 1980 and experienced the [President] Suharto era.... It is different for those who did not experience his era. So, [civic education] is important to increase nationalism. I love Indonesia (personal conversation with a student, translated, June 23, 2012).

Another student gave the similar opinion that the civic education course was important to him since it has made him proud to be an Indonesian citizen. He asserted:

Saya setuju [pendidikan kewarganegaraan] penting, karena pendidikan kewarganegaraan bisa setidaknya membuat saya bangga sebagai warga negara Indonesia dan belum beralih menjadi warga negara Timor Leste.

I agree that [civic education] is important, because civic education can make me at least proud as an Indonesian citizen and not change into the Timor Leste citizen (personal conversation with a student, translated, June 23, 2012).

Even though students felt that the civic education course was important, some students I interviewed liked the course and some students did not. I think this is common in any course, where not all students become excited about the content of the course. The civic education course is compulsory at UT, thus the students do not have a choice and have to take it even if they do not like it. The students said that whether they liked the course or not was a subjective opinion which depended on their personal feelings and preferences. This helps to explain why there were many different reasons given by the students.

Students who liked the civic education course gave several different reasons. One student from the Government Studies Program felt the course helped support her in understanding other courses. She stated:

Kalau masalah suka atau tidak suka mungkin subjektif ya. Karena saya di program studi Ilmu Pemerintahan saya merasa pendidikan kewarganegaraan sangat mendukung saya memahami matakuliah yang lain. Meski mata kuliah pendidikan kewarganegaraan tidak untuk TAP tapi mata kuliah ini bisa menjadi bahan rujukan saya nanti kalau saya TAP. Kalau saya ambil manfaatnya pendidikan kewarganegaraan
itu penting untuk mendukung matakuliah saya yang lain. Terus saya memang suka melihat berita TV, koran. Saya tuch kadang gak suka sama orang-orang yang berpendapat ngawur itu. Saya lebih senang belajar kewarganegaraan dan ilmu pemerintahan ya scopenya yang baik tuch seperti apa, yang benar tuch seperti apa pemerintah itu.

Whether you like or dislike the course is subjective. Because I am from the Governmental Science Study Program, I find the civic education course is very supportive for me to understand other courses. Although the civic education course is not for TAP [Final Assignment Program], this course can be helpful later on when I take TAP. I take the benefit of civic education to support my other courses. Then, I like watching news on TV and reading the newspaper. I do not like people who give meaningless opinions. I like studying civic education and the Governmental Science because of their scope, such as what is a good government.

Another student said she liked the course because it made her understand government and how to be a good citizen. Other students asserted that they liked civic education because they liked history and thought that both were similar. In the meantime, one student said that he felt that he was obliged to like the civic education course, and to respect it and the instructor’s ideas.

The students who did not like the civic education course also gave diverse answers. The main reason given was that the course was boring because the content was a repetition from the civic education lessons they had received in elementary and secondary school. Furthermore, one student commented that students only memorized the contents of the course and did not apply the knowledge in everyday life as they were supposed to. Thus, the main goal of the course was not achieved. This opinion reveals that this student understands civic education as providing not merely knowledge, but also civic skills to be applied in life. As one student stated:

... cuma ya itu harus diubah caranya jangan seperti di SMA yang menghafal UU. Jadi menurut saya dosennya dan pengembang modulnya harus lebih update tentang hal terbaru. Jadi gak ngebosenin gitu lho. Kalau misalnya cuma seperti di SMP, SMA, yah teori doank, ngapain.

... [civic education] should change the [teaching] method. Do not teach it like in high school, only memorizing laws. I think the lecturers and module developers should be more up to date on current affairs so that the course is not boring. [If] it is just like in junior or senior high school, just theory, then what is it for?
Another student also commented:

... cuma seperti yang dibilang, bosenlah kita, karena pelajaran itu sebenarnya sama dari SD, SMP, SMA. Menurut saya, [pendidikan kewarganegaraan] bagus kalau tujuannya bisa sampai ke masing-masing pribadi. ... kurikulumnya dari sekolah dasar sampai sekarang [tingkat universitas] seharusnya benar-benar bisa diaplikasikan di kehidupan sehari-hari. Jadi jangan hanya hafalan.

... we are bored because the study is the same from primary school, junior high school, to senior high school. I think [civic education] is good if its objectives can reach out to each individual ... its curriculum from primary school until now [university level] should really have been applied in everyday lives. So, do not just do memorization (personal conversation with a student, translated, June 23, 2012).

**Perspectives on the Online Civic Education Tutorial**

To assist students in better understanding civic education, the online tutorial is provided in the hope that students will be more motivated to learn. From the interviews, I found that the themes that emerged from students' opinions of the online civic education tutorial were initiation materials, discussion activities and responses from the tutors. Most of the students felt that the way it has been taught was not motivating or engaging.

For the initiation materials, some students felt they were not interesting because they were mere summaries from the modules, which they felt could be read and studied independently. In addition, some students saw that the case studies used were out of date and sometimes not authentic cases. One these students also saw that the commentaries were like those used in secondary school, where the instruction was mostly the teacher's lectures.

... kita sebagai mahasiswa tidak untuk didikte, tetapi lebih pada diberikan masalah kemudian bagaimana mendiskusikan masalah tersebut dengan konsep yang telah kita pelajari.

... we, as college students, are not to be told exactly what to do, but should be given problems, then discuss the problems using the concepts we have learned (personal conversation with a student, translated, June 23, 2012).

For the discussion activities, some students felt that the discussion forums did not thrive. They were monotonous, lacking in interactions among students. Students
usually only posted their own answers to discussion questions and did not respond to other students' opinions. Thus, they saw the discussions as assignments, rather than as opportunities to share and discuss one another's ideas. At times, students also felt that there was a lack of attention and response of their discussions from the tutor. This feeling decreased their motivation to be active in the discussions.

Pengalaman saya, diskusi itu tidak langsung dijawab. Saya pernah kasih pertanyaan, seminggu lebih tidak ada yang menjawab. Sehingga saya malas, lebih baik menjawab pertanyaan orang lain.

In my experience, the discussion was not immediately responded to [by the tutor]. I asked a question and it was not answered for more than a week, so it was pointless [to ask questions again]. It was better to answer other students’ questions (personal conversation with a student, translated, June 23, 2012).

Some students also saw that the discussion questions were not stimulating them to think critically. One student felt surprised when he could answer the questions by simply copying and pasting the answers from the Internet, using sites such as Google or Wikipedia.

However, not all students gave negative opinions. One student stated that her civic education tutor assigned “hot” cases to be discussed, and that the discussions ran well. She noted that the opinions of other students were not merely copied and pasted from the Internet. She felt she could learn from other students' perspectives, and could obtain new insights and knowledge.


I remember this task ... one of the cases was about a conflict of Sipadan and Ligitan Islands [the conflict between Indonesia and Malaysia in the fight over the islands to become parts of their countries]. We were asked to give our opinions about that. For me, that was a good case, so we did not just [see] the text book. We could not just copy and paste (personal conversation with a student, translated, June 23, 2012).
From the students’ opinions, I could see that students felt that there are aspects in the online civic education tutorial that need to be improved. The students gave some suggestions to make the online civic education tutorial more engaging. For them, the activities in the tutorial would be more motivating if the case studies presented in the discussions were more up to date. One student also hoped that the discussion questions would be more “down to earth”; based on real cases that happened in Indonesia. The students felt that it was easier for them to comprehend current cases compared to old cases, because they still could follow the cases through mass media, such as television and newspapers, at the time they discussed those cases in the tutorial.

An interesting topic to discuss suggested by one student was the comparison of kinds of civic education in different parts of the world. She was interested in what kinds of lessons are taught elsewhere and how these compare with civic education’s lessons in Indonesia.


… can civic education here be compared with civic education in other countries? So we can know civic education that is taught in other countries is that, that, that, and in Indonesia is this, this, this. I was wondering, in Singapore it is said that people there are orderly and disciplined, also in the United State of America. What lessons do they receive to be orderly like that? I think that our lessons are already good. The five religions also have taught good things. [However] we are not disciplined and orderly when we queue [for example]. Compare to other countries, we feel ashamed. Why can people in other countries be disciplined? Is there any civic education around that? (personal conversation with a student, translated, June 23, 2012).
For the discussion activities, the students felt that the tutorial would be more engaging if students could be more active participants. To participate more actively, one student suggested that students could meet face-to-face in groups occasionally to discuss certain cases. These discussion meetings could provide insights to students about the cases. The meetings also could function as an alternative fun activity besides simply reading the module.

Besides the content and discussion activities, students also gave technical suggestions about the online civic education tutorial to make it more motivating. One student suggested paying attention to the language style that was used in the tutorial. She felt that the language was too rigid or too formal. She thought that not all UT’s students were old, and as a younger student she preferred to use a language style that was more fashionable. This student also suggested that tutors should post their identity, such as photo and telephone number. She made this request because not all tutors in the online civic education tutorial have done that. The purpose of this request was for students to recognize their tutors, especially because in a distance education setting, they did not meet the tutors in person.

Other technical suggestions were about using animation, audio, or video in the initiation materials. When this thesis was written, the online civic education tutorial only used text in these materials.


In terms of its online tutorial, an animation could be inserted in the Powerpoint slideshow. There are things that should already be done. Is it possible [to add] film footage or footage of speeches and discussions? The specific example is the national resilience; footage could be shown of Sukarno’s speech, compared with Suharto’s speech, Megawati’s speech, and so forth [the presidents of the Republic of
Because not all areas in Indonesia have a high-speed Internet connection, not many online tutorial courses at UT add multi-media in their initiations in order to avoid difficulties for students to load the materials. However, another student added that UT could provide both media, such as only text or text plus multi-media in the initiation materials in online tutorials. Therefore, for students who only have a slow bandwidth, they could choose to open the initiation with only text, and for students who have high-speed bandwidth, they could choose to open the materials with multi-media.

Another student offered a suggestion about using Facebook or Twitter for the online civic education tutorial, since social networks have some important roles in society today. She asserted that in Facebook, groups of students could be formed for civic education tutorials to discuss certain topics every week. Moreover, she argued that using Facebook for a discussion forum could make students participate more actively, because they are likely to enjoy Facebook or Twitter. She commented:

... sekarang kan Internet sudah trend ya. Rasanya tidak ada yang tidak punya Facebook atau Twitter. Kita bisa melemparkan pertanyaan diskusi di forum di Facebook ya, karena di Facebook kan bisa lebih panjang pengetikannya [dari pada di Twitter]. Kaya gitu sich, jadi interaktif dan lebih hidup.

... now Internet is a trend. It seems that no one does not have a Facebook or Twitter account. We can throw questions at the discussion forum on Facebook, because in Facebook we could type more [than in Twitter]. So, the discussion could be interactive and more alive (personal conversation with a student, translated, June 23, 2012).

4.4.4. Tutors’ Perspectives on the Civic Education Course and its Online Tutorial

Perspectives on the Civic Education Course

To teach civic education, teachers or tutors must have an understanding of the philosophy and the purposes of civic education. From the tutors’ perspectives, the
purposes of civic education in Indonesia are to create good citizens who are democratic, patriotic, and responsible. Indonesia is a multicultural country with hundreds of different ethnic groups and cultures, as well different races and religions. One tutor argued that, to be a good citizen in a diverse Indonesia, a student has to become a democratic citizen. According to her, a democratic citizen is an inter-cultural person who can appreciate the cultural differences in society. Meanwhile, other tutors asserted that becoming a patriotic citizen is expected after learning about civic education in Indonesia. Civic education students are expected to maintain their nationalism, preserve and guard Indonesian norms and values in their daily lives, and develop a willingness to defend their country.

Learning about civic education is not only acquiring civic knowledge, but most importantly, it is also how to apply the knowledge in daily life. The tutors agreed that, without implementation of the civic knowledge, it is useless for students to learn about civic education. The following is a compelling point of view from a tutor about the philosophy and the purpose of civic education in higher education:

The philosophy of civic education is to establish the character of responsible citizens, citizens with integrity, who not only act outwardly, but also have good values inwardly. Through civic education, it is expected that every citizen will participate in maintaining and preserving the great value of the nation in everyday life. Through civic education, we instill values, norms, and culture in order to stem the negative effects of globalization, and the threat of a foreign ideology or culture that does not fit with the character of the nation. That does not mean we are defiant to the advancement of technology, science, and other cultures. Civic education equips students to be more selective. It is kind of filter and provides guidelines for citizens to face globalization. One key point is that students who have learned civic education are aware that the fate of the nation in the future is not just the responsibility of our leaders but that they also have a role as citizens. I want to drive the awareness of students. Thus, it is not just knowledge, but how students would want to apply it in everyday life. If it is only a theory or knowledge, just on paper, it is useless (personal conversation with a tutor, translated, June 2012).

As I mentioned earlier, civic education pedagogy is supposed to emphasize knowledge, skills and dispositions, and it is hoped that these aspects also have been covered in the civic education course at UT. However, it seems that this ideal has not been fully realized yet. Most of the civic education modules at UT are only focused on civic knowledge. The tutors hope that from civic knowledge students will eventually develop civic skills and apply those skills in everyday life.

It is not easy for tutors to detect and measure civic skills and attitudes in a distance education setting. One tutor argued that it was a challenge to assess civic dispositions; this would require the cooperation of other institutions such as the government or of communities because it could not be done by tutors alone. She argued that tutors could not see what students have done in their lives, whether the students voted in general elections, or have paid taxes. The tutors only know students’ opinions through their writings in the discussion forums. They do not know whether the students have actually done what they have written. Another tutor said that what can be assessed more readily is students’ knowledge of content and skills required as well as attitudes.

... sejauh ini pendidikan kewarganegaraan tuntutannya sampai bisa melakukannya. Kita baru bisa menguji mahasiswa itu pada pengetahuan skill, dan pengetahuan sikap.
... so far the demand from civic education has advanced up to the stage of action. [However] we are only able to assess students on their knowledge of the content and skills required as well as their dispositions (personal conversation with a tutor, translated, December 2012).

Another concern about managing the online civic education tutorial also came from one administrator. She stated that it was hard to pay attention to so many students and she was doubtful that the competencies of civic education such as civic knowledge, civic skills and civic dispositions would be reached using an online social constructivist approach because the skills could not be assessed online. She suggested using face-to-face meetings to assess civic skills and civic dispositions (personal conversation with the administrator, July, 2012).

**Perspectives on the Online Civic Education Tutorial**

The online civic education tutorial at UT has so many students’ enrolled (more than 3000 students) they are divided into several classes, consisting of approximately 300 students in each class. From tutors’ experiences, the number of students in each class who were active in the tutorial activities ranged between forty to fifty percent of each class.

Managing so many students in an online tutorial requires willingness and strategies. Each tutor handles the classes in slightly different ways from the others. It is the responsibility of each tutor to check the online tutorial’s website, to read students’ discussions every day, and to give feedback if necessary to the students, either individually or as a group.

In order to manage the online civic education tutorial, most of the tutors admitted that they checked the online website every day to review the discussions and give responses. The tutors thought that this strategy was vital because many students posted something in the tutorial every day and if the tutors skipped one day, they thought it would be difficult to respond to so many comments. Some tutors also greeted all the students every day, and even reminded them to submit their assignments. They felt that it is essential to greet the students because it motivates students to keep accessing the tutorial. One tutor commented:
Civic education’s [tutorial] has a lot of students, nearly 335 students. But I always respond to them ... always. I may not be as satisfied with the responses that I make compared to my other courses due to the number of students. For me, the greetings are important in order to make [the students] access the tutorial. Compared to students who were not immediately responded to, it seemed that they would not access the online tutorial in another course (personal conversation with a tutor, translated, December 2012).

A few tutors disclosed that they respond to all students, even though they are overwhelmed with the tasks. To manage the online civic education tutorial effectively, the tutors must be smart in managing their responses and their time in order to keep up with all of the discussions. One tutor spoke of his strategy of selecting which discussions were better handled through individual responses to students, and which discussions were more conducive to group responses, which could save a significant amount of time.

Our strategy was that we had to check [the online tutorial’s website] every day. It was indeed overwhelming. The challenge was how we could manage so it could be efficient and students did not feel neglected (personal conversation with a tutor, translated, June, 2012).

For the initiations and discussions in the online civic education tutorial, the tutors asserted that they followed the online tutorial’s procedures to deliver it, from the explanation of the schedules to the explanation of the competencies and the grades. The tutors also provided students with the contextual cases, and asked students to discuss these based on their experiences in their lived contexts.
The tutors’ goals were for students to give their opinions about the cases based on the concepts that they learned through the examples used in class. Some tutors said that one of the challenges of teaching in the online civic education tutorial was that many students responded to the discussions only with common sense. Their arguments were not based on theories. In the discussion activities, tutors expected students to go beyond their common sense when they discussed civic issues; students were expected to demonstrate informed opinions on civic matters. As one tutor stated,

Kadang-kadang mahasiswa itu—karena mungkin ia malas untuk membaca inisiasinya atau ia malas untuk membuka modul—ya kadang-kadang jawaban mahasiswa hanya berdasarkan common sense aja. Jadi kadang asal aja. Yang banyak seperti itu. Itu yang kadang-kadang membuat kita mengarahkan mereka ke the right track; jadi gak hanya common sense tetapi bagaimana diskusinya itu agak-agak berbobot. Ada landasan konsep, teori yang ada dalam matakuliah pendidikan kewarganegaran itu.

Sometime students—perhaps they might not want to read the initiations or are too lazy to open the modules—answered [the discussions] only based on common sense. There were many answers like that. That was what made us [tutors] sometimes have to direct students to the right track. So, [the focus was on] how to create substantial discussions, to make their opinions not only based on common sense, but to have a foundation of concepts and theories based on the civic education course (personal conversation with a tutor, translated, June, 2012).

Tutors also tried to avoid indoctrination in their teaching. One tutor argued that he saw the concepts in the course’s materials were not static, and that they could be debated. This tutor gave his students opportunities to develop their own thinking about the concepts and cases.

From tutors’ comments above, I see that these opinions are quite different from the opinions of students in regard to initiations and discussion activities. The majority of the students I interviewed felt that the case studies were out of date and the discussion activities were monotonous. Meanwhile, the tutors I interviewed argued that they have provided students with the contextual case studies and opportunities to have active discussions; overall, it seems the tutors felt the course was satisfactory as it is, although I did not specifically ask the tutors about their overall impressions of the course.
Because there were more than ten classes in the online civic education tutorial with approximately seven tutors who managed the classes, a plausible explanation for these mixed results was different ways tutors managed the tutorial. There were tutors who might provide current and interesting case studies for initiations and discussions, and on the contrary, there were tutors who might give case studies that have been out of date. How active students participated in the discussion forums in each class might be also different. Therefore, there were mixed opinions from tutors and students about the online civic education tutorial.

4.4.5. Tutors’ and Students’ Perspectives on a Social Constructivist Learning Approach

A social constructivist approach has been known and used in research at UT and articles about this theory have been written (e.g. Juleha, 2004). However, there is little evidence that the theory has been practiced in the teaching and learning processes at UT, especially in online tutorials. To assist in designing an online civic education tutorial using a social constructivist approach, I asked students and tutors about their perspectives on the possibilities for a social constructivist approach to be implemented in the online civic education tutorial and whether such an approach would influence the teaching and learning processes with which they were familiar.

For most students and tutors whom I interviewed, the concept of a social constructivist approach to learning was not very well known. For all students, it is a new learning approach. After I explained to them the concept of a social constructivist approach, one of the students felt the approach was appropriate for the online tutorial and thought that it respected the differences in opinions between students and teachers. She also saw that a social constructivist approach would give students the opportunities to develop their own thoughts and concepts, and not to be dictated by teachers.

tidak harus mendikte. ... Dosen itu mungkin mempunyai pengalaman sendiri dan mahasiswa mempunyai pengalaman sendiri, dan ada sesuatu yang sama, tapi ada sesuatu yang tidak sama, karena semua orang berpikir berbeda.

It looks like I agree with this concept, from which you explained earlier. I am also the mother of a child. ... we do not have to dictate. Children have their own mindset, and from there they get their own experiences. And one day, they have their own concepts. Environment supports the establishment of their mindset. Well, the concept [of social constructivist approach] could be good because it has not been familiar in Indonesia yet. But in my experience, children should not be dictated to. We as students do not have to be dictated to by instructors. ... The instructors may have their own experiences and so do the students. They might be something similar, but they might be something different, as well, because everyone thinks differently (personal conversation with a student, translated, June, 2012).

Another student felt that a social constructivist approach would fit with the online civic education tutorial because civic education is about how we practice our civic skills and civic dispositions in everyday life, and a social constructivist approach could be useful for that purpose. Since the tutorial has a lot of students registered, this student suggested dividing the students into groups with more than one tutor in each group, so the tutorial using the social constructivist approach would become more effective and focused. He asserted:


... for its online [tutorial] is rather difficult because probably the students are so many. Why not make it into groups? The online tutorials [are conducted] right after the registration closes, so UT has already known the number of students who registered. Why not make it into groups, so it would be more focused and intense? The tutors also have to be more than one or two people, so they could be more intense when facilitating the groups. Therefore, the students feel that they are mentored and not just answer questions to get a better grade. The problems [discussed] have to be current, not just limited to
the theories (personal conversation with a student, translated, June, 2012).

For the tutors, they have mixed opinions about a social constructivist approach. They might have recognized the social constructivist approach with different names and in various forms, such as the portfolio model and problem-based learning. One tutor said that the approach is similar to the Portfolio model, an alternative model of learning that is used in primary and secondary schools for civic education. The Portfolio model uses active learning and problem-based learning that are consistent with a social constructivist approach.

One tutor of the civic education course felt that a social constructivist approach is suitable and recommended the approach to be implemented in the online civic education tutorial at UT, even though he also expressed some concern about the readiness of tutors and students to use this approach. The tutors were not sure whether all the students could understand their role in the social constructivist class and he also had concerns about time required by tutors to manage large classes with the social constructivist approach.

Time considerations were one of the main concerns for tutors in thinking how they would be able to implement the approach. One tutor stated that she would need more time to manage the large online tutorial class with a social constructivist approach. She argued that one week for one initiation was not enough to handle more than one hundred students. As a lecturer at UT’s Regional Office outside Jakarta, she also has administrative tasks. Thus, she felt that she did not have enough time to manage so many students with a social constructivist approach. She said:


Sometimes, at Regional Office, eighty percent of work is administrative. I do the academic work at night. ... I am a customer service representative at the front. I also help the registration unit
because I am a registration officer at the Regional Office of Pangkal Pinang. I also handle cases. I also join the illiteracy program (PBA). If (I do) academic work, the administrative work will be neglected. So, if I have to respond to (the students) one by one, it is only possible for five students (personal conversation with a tutor, translated, June, 2012).

Lecturers at UT have unique tasks that may differ from the tasks of lecturers in conventional (face-to-face) universities. Besides their academic assignments, such as managing the courses, writing examination items, reviewing new written modules, conducting online tutorials for several courses, developing non-printed materials for certain courses, and so on, they also have administrative academic tasks, such as providing academic consultation for students.

4.5. Summary

The findings from this chapter can be summarized as follows: First, the online tutorial at UT is a learning support for students. It serves to help students in understanding the printed materials or modules of the courses. As not all areas in Indonesia had a good Internet connection, at the time this thesis was written, the online tutorial at UT was still not compulsory for students.

Second, the civic education course is compulsory for all students at UT; therefore there were about 3000 students enrolled in the online civic education tutorial in every semester at the time this study was conducted; they were managed by seven tutors. These students were divided into several online civic education tutorial classes, with each class consisting on average of 300 students.

Third, according to students and tutors at UT, civic education is an important subject to be taught and to be learned because civic education creates good democratic citizens who understand their rights and responsibilities and how to apply their rights and responsibilities in their everyday lives. Also, civic education creates citizens who have the value of patriotism, where they develop a willingness to defend the country, develop pride in being Indonesian citizens, and prevent social conflicts and separation among the
provinces of Indonesia. In addition, the course also creates citizens who can think critically and rationally.

Fourth, even though the civic education course is important, not all students like the course. For students who like the course, they see that the civic education course supports them in understanding other courses. However, students who do not like the course see that the content of the course is a repetition from the civic education lessons in elementary and secondary schools. Further, students felt that the course was only about memorizing the content and not about applying it in their everyday lives.

Fifth, students found the online civic education tutorial at UT was uninteresting because the initiations were only a summary from the modules, the discussions were monotonous, the discussion questions were not stimulating for them to think critically, and the case studies in the initiations and discussions were out of date. Furthermore, students said that there was a lack of interaction in the discussions among students, and a lack of attention and response to the discussions from the tutors.

Sixth, from the way the tutors managed the online civic education tutorial, I discovered that, for the most part, the tutors followed the basic procedures of online tutorials at UT, such as opening the online civic education tutorial and greeting the students every day, as well as responding to the students in the discussions. Some tutors responded to all students individually. Meanwhile, other tutors said that sometimes they responded to the discussions individually and sometimes they responded to them in groups. Some tutors also argued that they offered opportunities for students to develop their own thinking in the discussions.

Seventh, to improve the online civic education tutorial, students offered their suggestions, such as: the discussion questions should be based on the real cases; students should be more active in participating in the discussions; students should meet face-to-face in a group, occasionally; the online civic education tutorial should use a language style that was more fashionable; tutors should post their personal identity in the tutorial; the initiations should use animation, audio, or video; and the online tutorial activities could be integrated with Facebook or Twitter.
Eighth, a social constructivist approach was a new concept for the students, and some tutors have recognized the approach, perhaps with different names and form, such as portfolio- or problem-based learning. Students and tutors agreed that a social constructivist approach was suitable as a pedagogical approach for the online civic education tutorial at UT. The main concern expressed by the tutors was having the necessary time to implement a new approach.
Chapter 5.

A Social Constructivist Learning Approach for an Online Civic Education Tutorial at Universitas Terbuka

5.1. Introduction

This chapter provides the rationale for changing the online civic education tutorial at Universitas Terbuka (UT) and proposes a model using a social constructivist approach to democratic teaching. The chapter addresses the second and third research questions involving the need to change the online civic education tutorial and examines how to effectively implement a social constructivist approach.

This chapter begins with the reasons why the online civic education tutorial at UT needs to be changed. Those reasons are based on the findings from the interviews and the literature review. Then, the chapter presents a model for the online civic education tutorial. The model that I develop is based on the theory of community of inquiry with a social constructivist approach to a democratic form of teaching.

5.2. Rationale for Changing the Online Civic Education Tutorial

The objective of this study is to propose a pedagogical approach for the online civic education tutorial at UT. The interviews with students and tutors about the online civic education tutorial provide me with a picture of participants’ points of view and help me to understand whether the tutorial needs to be changed. My rationale for changing the structure of the tutorial is informed by the findings from the tutors, the students and
the current status of the civic education course, as well as the theoretical and research literature on civic education, constructivist learning, and effective online pedagogical approaches.

From the perspective of the tutors, I learned from the interviews that the tutors of online civic education tutorial at UT had provided the students with the initiation materials, discussions, and assessments. From the tutors’ comments, it could be seen that many students had already participated actively in the discussion forums on the tutorial. The tutors admitted that some students participated in all discussions during the eight weeks’ activities, and did all the assignments, but some students only participated in some discussions or did not participate at all. In my experience as a tutor in the online tutorial at UT, we used to make a report of online tutorials at the end of semester. In the report, the tutors made categories to describe how active a student was in online tutorials. If a student was logged on to the online tutorial, participated in all discussions, and did all the assignments, then the student was categorized as an active student. If a student was only reading the initiations without participating in discussions or doing the assignments, the student was categorized as a passive student. Meanwhile, there were also students who had been registered in online tutorials, but who had never been logged on to the tutorial. Note that here I am considering their participation in class activities, and I am not making any judgment on whether the student is actively or passively learning or on the quality of the student’s learning.

According to tutors, in average percentage of students who were active in online civic education tutorials was approximately fifty percent of the total number of students in one class. Thus, there were approximately one hundred and fifty students who were categorized as active participants in one class of tutorial. With those numbers of students, the tutors have responded to their students and facilitated the discussions, even though some of the tutors were not able to give responses and feedback to all students, one by one. It could not be denied that there is a challenge for tutors to manage so many students in one class of the tutorial. It is not easy to pay attention and to respond intensively to every student in one week’s activities. I could see that some tutors have done as much as they could to respond the students, but sometime they just did not have enough time, because usually the tutors have to manage more than one
course in the online tutorials, also they have other academic and administrative responsibilities.

Students frequently saw the course as being quite boring and not interesting. I found that most of them were not very satisfied with the activities of the online tutorial of civic education. There are a few aspects of the teaching and learning from the tutorial that have not fulfilled students’ expectations, such as initiation’s materials and the discussion process, that both contribute to the tutorial being seen as not very interesting and engaging. The students also found the cases included in the tutorial were out of date, and sometimes not relevant to their lives. The students wished that the content of the initiations and the discussions in the online civic education tutorial could be more current and relevant to ‘real life.’

Furthermore, from data interviews, some students who participate in the tutorial discussions felt that the discussions were not interesting at times, because there was a lack of interaction among students or between students and tutors. Some students felt that they did not have enough motivation to be active in the discussions for those reasons. The issue of low interaction among students in online discussions does not only occur in the case of the online civic education tutorial at UT. Some studies have found in online conferences a tendency for students to only post their own contributions without referring to other students’ opinions, making the discussion forum a set of serial monologues (Henri, 1992, 1995; McKenzie & Murphy, 2000; Pawan, Paulus & Chang, 2003).

Civic education, from the perspective of most of the existing scholarship that I have reviewed, is about how we are educated to develop civic knowledge, skills, dispositions, and act to be good citizens. The act is based on the knowledge of the importance of interaction in establishing a civil society, how to interact with civility, and dispositions that would inspire and encourage one to do so. In the online civic education tutorial, it is important that we let the students experience how to interact with other students and the tutor with respect, also being tolerant of other students and their opinions. It is also important for tutors to treat the students fairly. What we hope for in the online civic education tutorial is that the students can interact actively with each other, making the learning experience enjoyable and meaningful.
To have active students participating in the online tutorial discussions, the pedagogy needs to be redesigned for the ‘active student voice’ and less in terms of requiring the tutor’s responses to students. Learning should hinge more on student-student interactions, with more choice and more control for students. To some extent, students should be controlling the syllabus and the direction of the discussions and, therefore, experiencing and learning about their own ‘active voice’ in citizenship.

The new model for civic education would address these shortcomings because the tutors would be more involved in the discussions. They would endeavor to make the content meaningful by canvassing students to ensure the content is relevant to them. They would develop more active forms of online participation using discussion groups and working toward increasing student engagement.

It could be seen in the interview data that students and tutors believed that civic education is important and appropriate for university level study. It is seen to be important to prepare people to be good democratic citizens who understand their rights and responsibilities. One of the aims of civic education at university in Indonesia is realizing the full participation of responsible citizens in political life and in the ongoing development and dissemination of the principles of constitutional democracy in the country. The aspects of civic education are based on civic knowledge, civic skills and civic disposition. These aspects are what students aspire to when they enroll in the online civic education tutorial.

The online civic education tutorial at UT is a form of learning support for students so they can develop more understanding of the course. Students learn the civic education course mainly from modules, which they study independently for the final exams at the end of the semester. Modules of civic education would be the source of students’ knowledge, since the modules consist of the concepts and information regarding civic knowledge. However, to have knowledge and understanding about civic society is not enough. The students and tutors agreed that it was essential for a citizen to have civic skills and attitudes constructed from the knowledge. The online tutorial of civic education then could become a place for students to gain civic skills and civic dispositions, which is why it is important for the online tutorial pedagogy to mirror the democratic qualities of governance in Indonesia. However, at the time this thesis was
written, the various activities, such as initiations and discussions in the online civic education tutorial, most likely also only develop and assess civic knowledge. I would suggest that the online tutorials could provide good opportunities for the development of civic skills by providing opportunities for students to engage in online dialogues characterized by careful listening, empathy, respect for the other and for alternate perspectives, and thoughtful consideration of various points of view on civic matters.

The dimensions of civic knowledge, civic skills and civic dispositions may be able to be reached if we can create an online teaching and learning class environment that mirrors a democratic society’s environment. In this democratic class, students could develop and experience a sense of democratic life and civic agency. There are possibilities to change the online civic education tutorial at UT to become more interesting, more engaging for students, and more manageable for tutors. One of the possibilities is, again, changing the pedagogical approach used in the tutorial.

Democratic society is a form of society that favors equal rights. Citizens have to be responsible, have opportunities to participate actively in the communities and have freedom to speak. Citizens also have to be tolerant of their fellow citizens, be aware of others and their cultures, accept diversity within a democratic society, having a sense of being included and including others. Furthermore, citizens have to respect another person’s point of view, be willing to listen to and be influenced by arguments, and accept other attitudes and opinions. They also should be critical in their thinking, and should use an inclusive approach when interacting with others. Creating such an environment would require a pedagogical approach that can facilitate democratic teaching and learning.

One of the pedagogical approaches that can ease into a democratic teaching and learning environment, that I think suitable for civic education, is a social constructivist approach. This approach promotes learner-centered methods, where students actively construct knowledge based on their experiences with and previous understandings of their physical and social worlds. Furthermore, the learner is actively acquiring the knowledge and understanding through social or collaborative experiential activities. Education, according to Vygotsky, is a community-based collaborative reconstruction of experience. Democratic teaching and learning is relevant to a social constructivist approach as well because it emphasizes dialogue and interaction among
peers and instructors in the learning process (Woo & Reeves, 2007). Dialogue and interaction allow a dynamic sharing of ideas, knowledge, understanding and experiences (Reed, Smith & Sherratt, 2008). In the social constructivist learning environment, learners are encouraged to engage actively in learning, such as discussing, arguing, negotiating ideas, and collaboratively solving problems (Palincsar 1998; Ruey, 2010). Social interactions with the teacher and other students are a significant part of the learning process.

This model would likely increase the desired outcomes of learning. These ideas represent ideals, but they are still worth pursuing, if possible. I will now turn to a proposed model for the online civic education tutorial based on the civic education and constructivist principles I have outlined in detail throughout the dissertation.

5.3. A Proposed Model of an Online Civic Education Tutorial Using a Social Constructivist Approach for a Democratic Form of Teaching

Teaching civic education needs strategies. Print and Smith (2000) have reported that considerable research demonstrates that the traditional expository strategies are frequently ineffective in teaching civic education to a broad range of students (e.g. research by Dynesson, 1992; Patrick and Hoge, 1991; Sears, 1994). Print and Smith also argued that in order to achieve a democratic, civil society, teachers require an array of pedagogical strategies which address civic education initiatives in a constructive manner.

Osborne (1991) argued that effective teachers of civic education share principles in common, which can provide guidance for more effective civic education. The principles include:

1. The material being taught is worth knowing and is important;
2. Material is organized as a problem or issue to be investigated;
3. Teachers are able to connect the material with students’ knowledge and experience;
4. Students are encouraged to share and to build on each other’s ideas;
5. Connections are established between the classroom and the outside world;

6. Classrooms are characterized by trust and openness so that students find it easy to participate.

These principles resonate with a social constructivist pedagogical approach and democratic teaching goals and objectives. The applications of a social constructivist approach in the teaching and learning process include an appreciation of multiple perspectives, problem solving in real world situations, and collaboration in the learning process. In addition, the open class environment where students could build trust and give their opinions freely in discussions is part of the characteristics of a democratic classroom.

To have an educational experience in the online civic education tutorial at UT, I propose a model of learning based on the theory of Community of Inquiry from Garrison, Anderson and Archer (2000). To be implemented in the online tutorial of civic education course at UT, I add an element of democratic teaching to complement the social, cognitive and teaching presences in the model. The democratic teaching element would become an essential part since the purpose of the development of the online civic education tutorial should model a democratic society. This model is going to be a virtual world that represents the students' developing civic knowledge, civic identity, voice and agency. Therefore the model is to mirror the interaction between societies in a real democratic life, such as learning how to interact with other fellow citizens with tolerance and respect. Through this model as a pedagogical approach in the online civic education tutorial, UT's students would have a meaningful educational experience of the civic education course within the online community environment, because a community of learners is essential when higher order thinking is the desired learning outcome in higher education (Garrison, 2011).

5.3.1. Social Presence

The students in a distance learning program may experience isolation and alienation from the institution because of their physical separation from instructors and other students (Garrison et al., 2001; Morgan & Tam, 1999; Rovai, 2007). Development of feelings of social presence can assist, reduce or eliminate these outcomes (Rovai,
As mentioned in the literature review of this study, social presence is defined as “the ability of participants to identify with the group or course of study, communicate purposefully in a trusting environment and develop personal and affective relationships progressively by way of projecting their individual personality” (Garrison, 2011, p. 34). In addition, research evidence suggested that social presence among members of a learning community increased discourse, facilitated the critical thinking carried on by the community of learners, strengthened the sense of community, promoted learner satisfaction, facilitated collaborative learning, and contributed to the success of the learning experience (Garrison & Anderson, 2003; Gunawardena & Zittle, 1997). My model for the online civic education tutorial at UT using a social constructivist approach to a democratic form of teaching intends to promote critical thinking and collaborative learning among a community of learners within the tutorial activities. Therefore, I would suggest that in my model of the online civic education tutorial, social presence needs to be established.

At the time this thesis is being written, the online tutorial of the course has about 3000 students registered in a semester. The students are divided into several classes with about 300 students in every class. In regard to creating a community within the class and implementing the model that I propose, I would suggest that it is necessary for the students in the online civic education tutorial to be divided into several groups per class. Each group consists of ten to fifteen students, thus, each class would have about twenty to thirty groups. The members of each group would be determined by the UT’s Computing Center Unit automatically at the time students register for the online tutorial in one semester.

Dividing students into groups in online discussions is necessary to support higher level knowledge construction and critical and reflective thinking skills. Research findings showed that there was significant positive correlation between group size and the frequency of “higher level knowledge occurrences” (Hew & Cheung, 2012). The research result suggested that groups of about ten students may be an optimum size for discussion groups that achieve higher levels of discourse and deeper learning (Hew & Cheung, 2012). The researchers argued that the reason why ten students in one group revealed more advanced levels of knowledge construction in online discussion was because students were given bigger opportunities to identify the differences between the
contributions, to consider all the opinions, and to negotiate the various meanings of ideas raised in the discussions, as compared to students in smaller groups. Such activities would help foster the realization of higher levels of knowledge construction (Hew & Cheung, 2012).

However, Nonnecke & Preece (2000), also suggested that larger group size may decline the need for any given group member to contribute; as well, too large a group could invoke unnecessary cognitive loads onto the students (Schellens & Valcke, 2006) as they need to deal with large quantities of postings. Reading a lot of postings could cause a reading fatigue, and the students may cease from participating in the discussion altogether (Hew & Cheung, 2012). In regard to this suggestion, therefore, for the online civic education tutorial, I would suggest that ten to fifteen students in one group is a good size for students to have effective collaborative discussions.

It is important to distribute the students in the online civic education tutorial into groups since it would be a challenge for students and tutors to create an effective interaction and dialogue with so many students in a class. Another reason to divide the class into groups is to facilitate tutors in monitoring discussion activities as well as to ease them in giving responses and feedback, since the tutors could give responses and feedback to the groups of students. The tutors may not think it necessary to respond to the students one by one; therefore, they could reduce the required time by responding to many students at once; the students would likely not feel so neglected.

I would suggest that the tutor should prepare the syllabus of the tutorial in such a way that encourages the establishment of social presence. The establishment of social presence should be started in the first week of the online tutorial activities. In this week, the tutors greet the students in order to welcome the students in the tutorial. The tutors also post an introduction that consists of an introductory and personalized mini-biography-introduction, a plan of the tutorial activities during eight week period, the information about the learning objectives or learning outcomes of the course, and encourages the students to collaborate in the discussion activities.

Rovai (2007) provided suggestions for the strategies for instructors to promote social presence. He asserted that instructors need to access the discussion forums
every day in order to keep up with the conversations. The instructors should post at least one message per day in group discussion boards to suggest that the postings are being read. Postings can be expressions of appreciation, agreement, support, and encouragement, but Rovai (2007) suggested to avoid being so critical. Furthermore, Rovai (2007) advised instructors to maintain a focused discussion and summarize periodically what has been or needs to be done. He also advised encouraging students’ dialogue by asking questions that stimulate in-depth reflective discussions and hold students responsible for their thinking.

Based on the findings, I discovered that before this study was conducted, the tutors of the online civic education tutorial at UT had already promoted social presence in the online tutorial activities. Tutors accessed the discussion forums every day to greet the students. The tutors supported and encouraged the students to develop their motivation for participating in the discussions. The tutors also helped students focus and keep on track during the discussions. The social presence that has already been implemented in the online civic education tutorial through these actions needs to be continued and enhanced through the model proposed in this study.

In accordance to Garrison’s (2011) suggestions, the tutors have to be sensitive and give the appropriate messages that make the students feel welcome in the class community. Since the highlight of my model is using a democratic teaching approach, the tutors need to address the messages with respect, and may ask the students to be involved as co-moderators in the discussion forums. The tutors also need to encourage students to participate actively in the tutorial activities.

The role of the students in establishing a social presence in the online civic education tutorial is also essential. In the first week of the online tutorial activities, the students in every group are expected to build a community. Rovai (2002) defined community in online environments as:

consisting of two components: feelings of connectedness among community members and commonality of learning expectations and goals. ... Classroom community is strong when learners (a) feel connected to each other and to the instructor, (b) manifest the immediate communication behaviors that reduce social and psychological distance between people, (c) share common interests and values, (d) trust and
help each other, (e) actively engage in two-way communications, and (f) pursue common learning objectives. (p. 322)

In the online class community, students could express their unique opinions and discuss with other, different perspectives. Equal discussions would promote mutual understanding and common improvement, and simultaneously would be building up friendships among students. This online community also could help students to construct their individual identities, overcome anxiety and isolation resulting from online learning processes. In addition, interpersonal communication could allow students' learning experience to be accepted, encouraged, and supported by other students in the community. Therefore, the sense of belonging, identification, and community cohesion are reinforced, which, in turn, drives all the students in the community to play active roles in the interactions (Wei, 2013).

A sense of community in an online class can be encouraged through emphasizing common purposes (Rovai, 2002). The common goals in the online civic education tutorial are to learn about civic knowledge, skills and dispositions and to learn and discuss collaboratively the case studies provided by the tutors. In regard to developing the community, as a first step, the students need to have interpersonal communication by introducing themselves to each other. The introduction activity can create a sense of belonging in the class community for the students and hopefully it can build open communication and group cohesion throughout the online tutorial activities.

Building a sense of community and sense of belonging within the group is necessary to create a collaborative learning environment. Collaborative learning is one of the instructional principles to be considered when designing online social constructivist pedagogy (Huang, 2002), and I will again point out that this kind of learning is based on the foundations of discourse that establish and characterize democracies. Democracy requires social interdependence; effective democracy lies in the ability of groups of people to interact and to solve their problems collaboratively. In a democratic process, citizens express their ideas, listen to and evaluate each other's ideas, provide feedback, and come to a resolution and course of action. Citizens require the opportunity of interacting as equals, helping and being helped by other fellow citizens (Anderson & Lubig, 2012). To prepare students for their roles in democratic society, we need to
provide ample opportunities for students to develop and practice these skills and attitudes. Collaborative learning is a plausible learning approach to help students discuss and clarify their understanding of civic values. As Dewey pointed out, one of the keys elements of democratic learning process is that it should be collaborative, both among students and between students and faculties (Ehrlich, 1997).

In the civic education tutorial, I would suggest that the students would have collaborative discussions. Group discussions have been demonstrated to have a positive impact on learning by facilitating collaborative thinking and better understanding (Levin, 1995). In the beginning of the week of the tutorial, a group of ten to fifteen students would discuss a case study or topic. There would be twenty to thirty groups in one class, and every group would have the same case study or topic to be discussed. The students would be expected to work in their own group. They could see the discussions in other groups, but they would not be able to participate in their discussion activities. For the tutors, they could see all the discussions in all groups and provide comments and feedback in every group. In a collaborative work, tutors also have to ensure that all students in a group participate actively in the discussion. This can be achieved when the performance of each student is assessed (Du, Yu, & Olinzock, 2011). Therefore, for the assessment of the online civic education tutorial, the tutors not only monitor the group discussion, but also consider the individual’s contributions.

Working collaboratively can promote students’ critical thinking, problem solving skills, and social skills (Wang 2010). Students need to be able to work with and listen to others, and to develop ways of dealing with complex issues and problems that require different kinds of expertise (Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989). An emphasis on collaboration can strengthen group processing skills, and subsequently enhancing citizenship in a diverse democracy (Cohen, 2001, Dewey, 1966).

In addition, it is important to note that the tutors themselves will actively participate in the online discussions, alongside the students; they themselves will be members of the community who participate the same ways the students do, thus demonstrating through practice the ideals of both social constructivism and democracy. Through this intentional equalizing of power, the tutors both immerse themselves in the community of practice and also demonstrate democracy in action.
5.3.2. Cognitive Presence

For the pedagogical approach of the online tutorial of civic education, I propose to use a social constructivist approach in a democratic form of teaching. The change in using the social constructivist approach may influence the way the initiations and the discussions in the online civic education tutorial are conducted. One of the characteristics of learning from a social constructivist perspective is the active construction of knowledge based on experience and previous knowledge of the physical and social worlds of the students. Therefore, in the discussion forums of the online tutorial of civic education, the students are expected to have active discussions where they can collaboratively construct knowledge based on their experiences and their background. This collaborative construction of knowledge includes, importantly, the development of civic knowledge, civic skills, and civic dispositions. In the sections that follow, the underlying assumption is that the tutorial and its activities are based on this comprehensive, constructivist approach in which knowledge, skills, and dispositions are developed through curricular and pedagogical approaches that allow for such development, even, or perhaps especially, in an online environment.

Civic Knowledge and Civic Skills in Cognitive Presence

As mentioned in the literature review of this study, civic knowledge is concerned with the content or what citizens ought to know about citizenship. That includes knowledge about civic life, politics and government, the foundation of the political system, the roles of citizens in a democratic nation, democracy, human rights, and of the participatory means of democracy—the democratic interactions outlined here. In my model of the online civic education tutorial, civic knowledge could be obtained by reading the initiation materials and the printed materials. Also, through the collaborative discussions in the cognitive presence, from the triggering event until resolution, students could exchange and construct knowledge together about their citizenship.

To exercise their rights and discharge their responsibility as members of a democratic society, citizens not only need civic knowledge, they also need to acquire intellectual and participatory civic skills—these demonstrate cognitive presence. Intellectual civic skills are essential for informed, effective, and responsible citizens, and sometime are called critical thinking (Branson, 1998). Critical thinking also involves
reflective practice, and like critical thinking, per se, reflection can be either a solitary or collaborative pursuit. Intellectual skills in civics encompass knowing how to identify, assess, interpret, describe, analyze, and explain matters of concern in civic life. Good civic education seeks to develop competence in explaining and analyzing. If citizens can explain how something should work, for instance, in the Indonesian government system, the Indonesian economic and social system, they will be more able to detect and help correct malfunctions (Branson, 1998).

In addition to intellectual skills, civic education in a democratic society also have to focus on participatory skills; that is, skills that are required for informed, effective, and responsible participation in the political process and civil society. Participatory skills can be characterized as interacting, monitoring and influencing (Branson, 1998). As mentioned in the literature review of this study, interacting skills are those skills that involve communication and being responsive to other citizens, to question, to answer, to deliberate with civility, as well as to manage conflict fairly and peacefully. Monitoring politics and government are the skills citizens need to be aware or to develop awareness about issues in the governmental and political processes, including how citizens can function as “watchdogs” of the government. Meanwhile, influencing skills refer to the capacity to affect the processes of politics and governance in formal and informal ways in the community (Branson, 1998).

In the online civic education tutorial using a social constructivist approach in a democratic form of teaching, the intellectual skills of civics, such as critical thinking could be attained through collaborative discussions among students and the tutor in discussion forums; it is in practice of the skills that they have learned. Social constructivist approaches interpret learning as competent participation in the discourse, norms and practices associated with particular communities of practice. From this approach, learning to think critically can be seen as a social process (ten Dam & Volman, 2004). Collaborative discussion is considered to be highly valuable as a social instruction technique to cultivate critical thinking.

In the discussion forums, students would be able to practice critical thinking by explaining, compare, and analyzing the topics, issues, or case studies about civics. In addition, the class environment needs to encourage students to gain practical
experience of the skills and dispositions of critical thinking. For instance, ten Dam and Volman (2004) argued that in order to cultivate critical thinking, the culture and dialogue in the classroom need to encourage students not only to be able to look at a problem in discussions from different perspective, or to be able to pinpoint the main issues and assumptions in a discussion or argument. It also should encourage students to be able to relate a question to own values and norms, to be able to relate questions to general principles such as social justice, equality, respect and consideration, to be open to and consider other people, and to be able to express a different opinion. (p. 373)

Moreover, students would be able to practice one of the characteristics of participatory skills: interacting by communicating and working cooperatively with other students in discussion forums, and doing so in a critical fashion. In the democratic form of teaching, elements such as care, empathy and involvement are indeed emphasized as important aspects of the learning community in which students learn to think critically. Also, students and tutors are anticipated to interact with civility, tolerance, and respect for each other in the discussions. All of these allow the students to learn and to model and even to critique their civic skills.

**Initiations**

The activities in the online civic education tutorial would begin with initiations. Usually, initiations in the online civic education tutorial at UT consist of the reading materials. The materials could be taken from the summaries of the modules of the civic education course and from other sources, such as journals, books or the Internet. The reading materials in the online civic education tutorial basically provide the students additional sources to assist them with comprehending the materials of the course. In the interview, some students felt bored with the online civic education tutorial because they found the initiation materials were only the summaries from the printed materials, which they thought that they could read by themselves. To address this concern, I would suggest that the initiations in the online civic education tutorial not only consist of the summaries from the modules, but also consist of materials from other sources that relate with the topics on the week of the tutorial. The students can provide reading materials as well. The tutor can ask the students in a group if they have other materials from other sources that also relate with the topics in the week. The additional reading materials will
enrich students’ knowledge about topics covered in the modules. In this way, the tutor has empowered the students by trusting them to be involved in the teaching and learning process.

In addition to the reading materials from other sources, the students who I interviewed also gave suggestions to add audio-visuals and/or videos that relate with topics discussed in a week, to make the initiations in the online civic education tutorial more interesting. Providing another form of resource other than reading materials could make the online tutorials more motivating. Video is a rich medium in e-learning that can present information in an attractive and consistent manner. Research suggested that using interactive video in an online learning environment may lead to better learning outcomes and higher learner satisfaction (Zhang, Zhou, Briggs, & Nunamaker Jr., 2006). Therefore, I would suggest that tutors may need to add videos in the initiations of the online civic education tutorial as a media of learning. The content of the videos in the tutorial could be a speech from opinion leaders or local and national leaders about current issues or policies, or a short film related to weekly topics of discussion. Students would be asked to watch the videos, and after that, they would be asked to give their opinions and have collaborative discussions with other students about the content.

**Discussion Forums**

The discussion forum in the civic education tutorial is the place where students have interactions with the tutor and with other students. In this forum, students are expected to have active discussions and to collaborate with other students discussing case studies. In the interview, some students comment that the case studies provided in the tutorial were out of date, thus, the students were not interested in being involved in the discussions. To have an active discussion, the tutor needs to provide interesting topics or case studies. The interesting cases for discussion are likely the current cases that are happening currently in the society. Furthermore, to make discussions more interesting, tutors can also introduce case studies that reflect real life problems to the students. Posing problems of emerging relevance to students is part of a social constructivist approach to teaching (Chan, 2010).

Most of UT’s students are working adults. According to the theory of andragogy from Knowles (2011), adult learners are assumed to be more interested in learning when
the learning materials are relevant to their experiences and their lives. They are also assumed to prefer learning case studies with a problem solving orientation. When the cases are presented in a realistic and contemporary life context, the students are more motivated to learn new knowledge, understandings, skills, values, and attitudes (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2011).

Developing contemporary case studies for the initiation of discussions in the online civic education tutorial is necessary to make students aware of the current situations and conditions in the nation. Current cases may draw students’ attention and interest more effectively in the tutorial and encourage their involvement in the discussion forums. The students can give their thoughts and experiences to other students and they also can develop critical thinking as they discuss the cases from their perspectives and offer alternative solutions to the problems.

To have social constructivist learning activities in the discussion of the tutorial, I would suggest using the model of cognitive presence in the community of inquiry. As I mentioned in the literature review in this study, cognitive presence in the inquiry is defined as “the extent to which learners are able to construct and confirm meaning through sustained reflection and discourse in a critical community of inquiry” (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2001, pp. 10-11). This model consists of four phases of practical inquiry, namely the (a) triggering event, (b) exploration, (c) integration, and (d) resolution.

In a discussion activity of the online civic education tutorial, I would assume that in one week it would begin with the triggering event. A triggering event is a well-thought-out topic or case study that would be discussed in the week to ensure full engagement from the students, and would come from either the students or the tutor (Garrison, 2011). In the online civic education tutorial, a triggering event could be provided in the form of discussion questions in the beginning of each week of the tutorial. The case study or topic of the discussion should speak to an issue or concept of the topic being studied in that week. The tutors are responsible for initiating this phase; however, the students also could provide the issues and problems that they see or relate to from their experiences. Direct reference to personal experience is a crucial part of democratic education as empowerment (Herman, 1996). According to Garrison (2011), this phase
has several positive outcomes in term of involving students, assessing the state of knowledge, and generating unintended but constructive ideas. Involving students in this activity means that students are given opportunities to take active roles in the learning process. The students can share control with the tutors over the discussion topics. The students can “own their learning” and hopefully they would be more actively participating in the discussions. In this phase, it is important for tutors and students in the online civic education tutorial to think and create discussion questions that would stimulate critical thinking from the participants of the discussions. It is necessary to avoid questions that can be answered as simplistically in one or two words, or have one right answer (Hosler & Arend, 2013).

The nature of the questions in the triggering event needs to invite curiosity, elicit interest and encourage different perspectives. Good questions derived from relevant content can trigger thoughtful investigations. For instance, the questions could begin with queries such as, “Why do you think such and such is?” or “What are the consequences” (Hosler & Arend, 2013). In addition, Bender (2003) suggested that to invite students into more meaningful dialogue, the instructors should create questions that support students making comparisons, highlighting contrasts, or making predications, such as, “What do you think will happen if …?” (p. 153). In the online civic education tutorial, the questions in the triggering event could use those kinds of queries when the tutors or students ask discussion questions in the form of case studies or topics related to the current interesting political and social issues in Indonesia or in the region. They could be also in the form of problem solving. These types of the questions could stimulate critical thinking from the students.

After the topic or case study is determined in that week, the next step is exploration. This means to understand the nature of the issue or problem and to search for relevant information and possible explanation (Garrison, 2011). In the online civic education tutorial, this activity would be done collaboratively. In each group in the tutorial, students would search information, share and explore ideas, solicit narratives of relevant perspectives or experiences, and elicit comments or responses about the topic or case study; and try to make sense of what may seem to be complexity and confusion.
The third phase is integration, which is the process of constructing a meaningful solution or exploration (Garrison, 2011). The students would integrate information or ideas, offer agreement, build other ideas, provide a rationale or justification, and explicitly offer a solution. Students are engaged in critical discourse that will shape understanding (Garrison, 2011). In the online civic education tutorial, my interpretation would be the students in each group would integrate the information or ideas, provide the rationale or justification about the case or topic, and then they make conclusions or share solutions about the case study or topic being discussed. Garrison (2011) stated that in this phase the tutors must review for understanding and misconceptions as well as model the critical thinking process.

The fourth phase is the resolution of the problem. That could be reducing complexity by constructing a meaningful framework or discovering a specific solution to a defined problem through direct or vicarious application (Garrison, 2011). The application would require an analysis of the hypothetical test, which could take the form of presentation and defense with other students critiquing the suggested application, or the test could take form of direct application or an action research project (Garrison, 2011). My interpretation of this phase for the online civic education tutorial is that after the students in one group present the conclusion or the solution in their own group, then the tutor asks the students to make online presentations with other groups to generate comments or critiques from students in other groups of the class.

**Assignments**

Besides initiations and discussions, the other activity in the online civic education tutorial at UT is assignments. During the eight-week period of the online tutorial, tutors give online assignments to students in weeks three, five and seven. The assignments in the tutorial include individual writing assignments submitted that are not seen by peers; the students cannot see each other’s work. At the time this thesis was written, the form of the assignments in the online civic education tutorial consisted of one or two questions about social or political issues in Indonesia, and students gave their analyses about those issues. Another form of the assignments was mini papers, where the tutor gave a topic related to civic education being discussed during the week. I would suggest that in addition to asking for answers to questions and the writing of a mini paper, the
assignments could also be in the form of portfolios. In the portfolios, students could be asked to write their opinions and reflections about real political or social issues that have happened and are happening in Indonesia, what they think of the issues, what they might or might not do, whether the issues affect their own lives, and what their own experiences have been related to the issues. These kinds of assignments could help the students to develop their understanding of civic life and the associated skills of civic engagement.

5.3.3. Teaching Presence

As I mentioned in the literature review in this study, teaching presence in a community of inquiry is defined as “the design, facilitation and direction of cognitive and social processes for the purpose of realizing personally meaningful and educationally worthwhile learning outcomes” (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2001, p. 5). Based on this definition, teaching roles in an online learning can be categorized as instructional design and organization, facilitation and direct instruction.

In my model, the role of tutors in the online civic education tutorial is also as instructional designers, facilitators, and direct instructors of the tutorial. Garrison (2011) reported that it was not easy to design and organize an online learning course of studies. It was more demanding than to design and organize a face to face classroom environment. Garrison (2011) argued that the reasons were due to the technology and to maximize the capabilities of the online learning medium. Further, teachers who may have relied on lecturing in the past need to adjust and focus on the design and organizational element in the online learning context (Garrison, 2011).

From the interview of this study, I found that for the most part, the lead tutor of the civic education class designed the activities in the online tutorial. The other tutors may change the discussion questions, but for the most part they used the initiation materials and assignments that were designed by the lead tutor for their class. I would suggest that the lead tutor and the other tutors involved in the online civic education tutorial could work together in designing the curriculum for the tutorial before the online tutorial begins in the semester.
As instructional designers for online learning, teachers have to build curriculum that deals with the contradiction of having to both increase and decrease content (Garrison, 2011). The teachers may provide links to sites that may include additional material that is relevant to the subject. Also, the teachers may reduce the quantity of materials if there is to be considerable interactivity (Garrison, 2011). In the online civic education tutorial, tutors design the curriculum for the tutorial based on the curriculum in printed material of the civic education course. As a learning support for students, the content of initiations in the online tutorials serves as a further explanation of the printed materials. There are nine topics in the printed materials of civic education course at UT with more than twenty learning activities. The tutors would not be able to explain all of the topics in the printed materials in the online tutorial. Therefore, tutors may need to reduce the number of discussion topics in the online tutorial. They need to choose which topics or learning activities in the printed materials may need more explanation. In addition, tutors may also have to enrich the text by providing reading materials from journals or books as well as links to sites that are relevant to the topics in the syllabus.

As the facilitators, tutors of the tutorial have responsibilities to stimulate motivation and maintain students’ interest and engagement in the tutorial’s activities. Therefore, in the discussion forums, tutors should give responses to students by commenting on posts, identifying areas of agreement and disagreement, and trying to draw in inactive students. Even though the active students in the online civic education tutorial who participate in every discussion forum are numerous, there are also passive students who only log onto the tutorial without giving their opinions in the discussions or doing the assignments. The tutors have responsibilities to ask these students to get involved in the conversations in the discussions. Furthermore, the presence of tutors also could make the online civic education more attractive to students.

This concept of making the tutorials more interesting relates with the concept of investment in education. Rather than just considering motivations, Peirce (1995) has suggested the concept of investment as something to be developed. Tutors make it attractive to students to invest in the course through their readings, discussions, and assignments because they come to understand that the course will give them valuable social and intellectual capital—the knowledge, skills, and dispositions of those who
participate in a civic democracy. Upon completion of the course, they will benefit by being better able to participate democratically in Indonesian life.

Besides having responsibilities as instructional designers and facilitators, it is also necessary for tutors of the online civic education tutorial to provide direct instruction in the discussion activities. Direct instruction often deals with specific content issues, such as diagnosing misconceptions (Garrison, 2011). In the online civic education tutorial, I would suggest that the tutors should have a relevant educational background and expertise or knowledge in civic education, so the tutors could recognize misconceptions in the discussions and give feedback and suggestions. Garrison (2011) argued that teaching presence is impossible without the expertise of a responsible and experienced teacher who can “identify ideas and concepts worthy of study, provide the conceptual order, organize learning activities, guide the discourse, offer additional sources of information, diagnose misconceptions, and interject when required” (p. 60). It is hoped that tutors in the civic education tutorial at UT also have that kind of expertise and experience to support an effective and efficient learning experience in the tutorial.

The role of teaching also could be assumed by students, to give them an opportunity to facilitate the discussions. This role could also be seen as the power sharing between students and tutors. In the civic education tutorial, giving students the opportunity as a peer facilitator could help the tutors managing the discussions because the tutors do not need to respond the students one by one; the tutor can give response in groups. In one group, the students of the online civic education tutorial would be asked alternately to be peer moderators in each week to help the tutor facilitating the discussions. During the eight-week online tutorial period, there would be eight students in each group who would become peer moderators. Their roles as peer moderators would give students opportunity to actively participate in the discussion forums, as the students may feel responsible to contribute and facilitate the discussions during the week. The students also have an opportunity to take active role in the learning process and voice their opinions. With this arrangement, teachers and learners have important, complimentary responsibilities; they both are part of process of the learning (Garrison, 2011).
5.3.4. Democratic Community

I mentioned that civic education should include the development of civic dispositions, along with civic knowledge and skills. Civic dispositions imply private and public traits that are possessed by citizens in a democratic society. The traits include respect for other individuals, willingness to listen, negotiate, and compromise, to develop tolerance, civility and critical mindedness (Branson, 1998). These dispositions can also be realized in this educational approach. First, a social constructivist approach recognizes that the tutors play a valuable role in modeling civic dispositions. Through modelling, tutors may guide students to develop civic virtues or dispositions. Steutel and Spiecker (2004, p. 536) asserted that modelling is understood as a kind of Aristotelian habituation, which is learning by doing virtuous things frequently and consistently under the guidance or authority of a virtuous tutor. Second, the development of civic knowledge and civic skills in a reflective environment will lead to the development of civic dispositions. Students with knowledge and the skills of engaging in civil discussions will develop the dispositions that characterize civility through their collaborative, reflective, and respectful engagements.

To develop the civic dispositions in the online civic education tutorial, I would suggest that the interaction in the discussion forums among students and between students and tutors in the tutorial should mirror social interaction in democratic society. What I imagine in a democratic society is people treating other people equally and having an attitude of being tolerant and respectful when they interact with each other, and also being able to understand others’ perspectives. These attitudes are the civic dispositions that hopefully will be retained by students after they learn civic education.

According to Cambridge Dictionaries Online, the definition of tolerance is a “willingness to accept behavior and beliefs that are different from your own, even if you disagree with or disapprove of them” (http://dictionary.cambridge.org/us/dictionary/american-english/tolerance_1?q=tolerance). A similar definition is constructed by Moore and Walker (2011), who defined tolerance as:

[an] acceptance of and respect for people with different values, beliefs and cultural backgrounds than one’s own accompanied by a willingness
to allow others to maintain and express their values, beliefs and culture. A person practicing tolerance will show empathy for others and a diminished response to their differences. (p. 51)

Tolerance requires respect and recognition (Jackson, 2007). Respect refers to being patient with differences, appreciating differences, and appreciating being different (Raihani, 2011). In education, Peters (1966) described the meaning of respect as the “awareness one has that each man [sic] has his own aspirations, his own viewpoint on the world; that each man takes pride in his achievements, however idiosyncratic they may be” (p. 34). This would imply that students are taught to listen to what others have to say, to accept personal differences, to be considerate and not to ignore others’ needs (Sanderse, 2013).

Tolerance and respect are the foundation for the value of recognition: that is, a deep appreciation for and respect of differences based on the principle that all human beings have equal dignity and rights, as I pointed out earlier in the offering the foundational concepts of democracy. Recognition is built upon a positive attitude towards a diverse reality, that all human beings who have different values, such as different religious and cultural practices, are equal (Raihani, 2011). Recognition will strengthen equalities and accommodate differences. With tolerance, respect, and recognition, active participation and mutual contribution can be expected from each member of society in the context of harmonious relationships (Raihani, 2011).

Tolerance is an important virtue in a multicultural society (Comte-Sponville, 2001; Willems, Denessen, Hermans, & Vermeer, 2012). Indonesia is a democratic country with diverse culture, ethnicities, races, and religion, which represents a plurality of ways of life, views, opinions and practices. With these differences, social conflict will easily occur if there is a lack of tolerance and respect in the community relationships. People in Indonesia have to be able to accept the differences among themselves to maintain a harmonious society. Tolerance, respect and willingness to learn from each other are the values on which democratic nations thrive. They are the values that schools must teach and practice (Gerzon, 1997).

In the online civic education tutorial, democratic teaching in the form of tolerance and respect would be expected to be applied by participants in the discussion forums.
Developing a respectful sense of community within the online civic education tutorial class is important. This requires tutors to be conscious that they are serving as models and that they should model good civic dispositions; as well, students become aware that, through practice, they are learning to model good civic dispositions with each other; they also learn that modeling is, to a large degree, what civic participation involves. Civic participation means that you demonstrate the participatory skills of democratic involvement.

The process of modelling civic dispositions in the online civic education tutorial begins with tutors modelling tolerance and respect for students when they facilitate the discussion activities by greeting the students, expressing agreement, expressing appreciation, valuing students’ ideas, and respecting students’ opinions whether or not they agree with them; and, if they do disagree and want to challenge students on their ideas and practise, they do so in a respectful manner, being mindfully aware of their own emotional reactions. Tutors who model respect will always appreciate each individual student. The tutors then would be expected to ask the students to do the same when the students collaboratively discuss the case studies or topics in the discussion forums. Respect is earned through treating others the way you would like to be treated. When tutors treat students with respect, they are more likely to receive respect in return.

The students can also show their respect of their fellow students by using polite language when responding other students’ comments, referring to names when responding, acknowledging other students’ ideas, expressing appreciations, as well as expressing agreements and expressing disagreements respectfully. In the online civic education tutorial, the students would almost certainly have different backgrounds; they have different social and economic status, and, as well, they come from different cultures and religions. Therefore, when they collaborate and engage in discussion, it is essential that the students would have tolerance for each other if they have diverse points of view or do not agree with other students regarding the topics that are being discussed. The students may have different opinions, and they may be passionate about those opinions, but they have to find compromise and solutions without conflict. To produce that kind of environment the tutors and the students could have some kind of agreement before the tutorial begins, that they will contribute to creating a class
environment that ensures everyone can express their voice openly and safely. Such interaction is what is expected to be embedded in a democratic society.

There will likely be times when there is strong disagreement and emotions are strongly held. We should learn to recognize these as opportunities for growth in civic knowledge, skills, and dispositions rather than as disruptions to the democratic/civic process. So rather than trying to squelch or suppress these emotions and occurrences, tutors would be encouraged and trained to work with students in negotiating and mediating understandings that would develop the civic climate in the tutorial.

5.4. Summary

This chapter presented the reasons why I feel it is valuable to change the tutorial and why I am proposing a social constructivist approach in a democratic form on civic education in an online tutorial environment. I argue that a social constructivist approach and a democratic form of teaching will foster engagement by both tutors and students in the on-line tutorial of the civic education course, and that such engagement would at least begin to model the forms of engagement present in a democratic society; at the very least, the activities would help participants develop civic knowledge, skills, and dispositions through a constructivist approach.
Figure 5.1. Model of the Online Civic Education Tutorial at UT

SOCIAL PRESENCE
- Collaborative learning

TEACHING PRESENCE
- Facilitator
- Peer to peer

COGNITIVE PRESENCE
- Construct knowledge
- Current case studies
- Problem solving
- Active discussions
- Critical thinking
- Experiences

DEMOCRATIC TEACHING
- Students’ voice,
- Respect,
- Tolerance
- Interaction,
- Dialogue,
- Collaboration
- Decision making
- Power sharing

DEMOCRATIC SOCIETY AND CIVIC AGENCY
- Citizens’ voice,
- Respect,
- Tolerance
- Active participation
- Critical thinking
- Problem solving
Chapter 6.

Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations

6.1. Introduction

This final chapter begins by reviewing the context and purpose of the study, the methods chosen for conducting the study, together with the findings and conclusions regarding the proposed model for the online civic education tutorial at UT. This is followed by the implications for students, tutors, administrators, and the institution of UT if the model of the online civic education tutorial were to be implemented. The next section presents suggestions and recommendations for UT to accommodate the proposed model for the online civic education tutorial. The chapter then discusses the limitations of the study and provides recommendations for further research.

6.2. Review of the Study

This study was conducted as a result of my interest in civic education in Indonesia. My own unpleasant experiences in relationships with friends throughout my schooling made me feel rejected as a student. With Indonesia being one of the most diverse nations in the world with many different ethnic groups, languages, and religions, I realize that civic education is essential to be taught in schools and communities to create people who can live together in harmony, who can share relationships in ways that prevent social conflicts among communities.

Even though civic education is an important subject in many countries and has been compulsory for all students from elementary schools to post-secondary schools in Indonesia, it is a common experience in schools that civic education is a boring subject
that has to be learned. One of the reasons might be that the teachers’ approach in delivering the subject draws from a “transmission model” and only includes memorizing the content to be learned. This approach might only cover civic knowledge, which is not enough, because the purpose of civic education is also to create good citizens who have civic skills and civic dispositions, and are capable of participating actively in a democratic society. The most important part of learning civic education was not only to gain civic knowledge, but also to learn how we could cultivate and embody civility and applied civic knowledge in our everyday lives.

The context of this study was civic education as a course subject in an online tutorial taught at UT, where I have worked as a lecturer for about twelve years before undertaking doctoral study at SFU. UT is a distance teaching university where the primary learning media for students is printed materials. Students learn the materials independently at their homes. To help students develop more understanding with what are considered by the administration to be difficult courses, UT provides an online tutorial as a learning support. The civic education course at UT is considered as being a difficult course, so it is supported by an online tutorial. The online civic education tutorial at UT consists of a large numbers of students; approximately 3000 students are registered in every semester. These students are divided into several online classes of the tutorial, each consisting of 300 students. Several tutors are assigned to manage the online civic education tutorial activities. The online civic education tutorial at UT runs for eight weeks in every semester. It has several features such as initiatives, discussions, and assignments.

When this thesis was written, the printed material and the online tutorial of the civic education course at UT still primarily emphasized civic knowledge. The pedagogy of the online civic education tutorial had not yet supported the development of civic skills and civic dispositions. Teaching civic knowledge, civic skills and civic dispositions in the online civic education tutorial needed an appropriate pedagogical approach. I proposed a pedagogical approach that was modelled on a social constructivist model and a democratic form of teaching for the teaching and learning process in the online civic education tutorial. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to inform the design of a new, reformed online civic education tutorial at UT drawing from a social constructivist
approach to provide the very model of a democratic form of teaching that would address and develop civic knowledge, skills, and dispositions.

The study addressed three questions, including the nature of the current civic education course and the online civic education tutorial at UT, the rationale for changing the teaching and learning approach of the online civic education tutorial at UT, and how a social constructivist approach to a democratic form of teaching could be implemented in the online civic education tutorial. The method that I used to answer these questions was that I combined an analysis consisting of literature reviews of citizenship, civic education, distance education, social constructivism, and democratic teaching, as well as the interview data involving a number of participants including students, tutors, and administrators, to create a design model for the online civic education tutorial at UT.

The findings from interviews with students and tutors of the online civic education tutorial at UT helped me to understand the present situation in the tutorial, and the reasons why the civic education tutorial at UT needed to be changed. From the students’ perspectives, I found that most students were not satisfied with the tutorial; they felt that the civic education course and its online tutorial were monotonous, the case studies being discussed in the online tutorial were not up to date, and there was a lack of interactions among students, as well as a lack of attention and responses from tutors. In the meantime, from the tutors’ points of view, I discovered that most tutors faced challenges in managing a large numbers of students—about 300 students per class—in the online civic education tutorial. One of the challenges included how to respond to all students in the discussions. The model that I proposed using a social constructivist approach to a democratic form of teaching hopefully could make the tutorial more interesting and could support active participation from students, as well as offer the tutors a different and more viable approach to managing the tutorial.

In practice, the model that I am proposing for the online civic education tutorial at UT is based on the Community of Inquiry framework from Garrison, Anderson, and Archer (2000), and a democratic form of teaching. The Community of Inquiry framework promoted a social constructivist learning approach. In this framework, the learning in the online civic education tutorial occurs within the community through the interaction of three elements: namely, social presence, cognitive presence, and teaching presence. In
social and cognitive presence, students would form an online community where they would have collaborative discussions every week during the eight-week period of the online tutorial. In the collaborative discussions, students would be expected to practice critical thinking while reading and discussing current case studies of social and political issues. Through these activities, students would gain civic knowledge and civic skills.

Moreover, teaching presence would occur in this model when tutors promoted a democratic environment in the class. Tutors would give students more power in their learning by providing opportunities for students to propose discussion questions and become co-facilitators in the discussions. Tutors would model civic dispositions throughout their teaching in the tutorial. Tutors would show their respect and tolerance to students when they facilitated discussion activities and gave direct instructions. Students were also expected to be tolerant and respectful when they have discussions with other students and tutors. Through this model, I would expect students and tutors in the online civic education tutorial would experience a democratic interaction that mirrors the interactions in a democratic society: that they were being critical in thinking, tolerant, respectful, and were actively participating in the society.

6.3. Conclusions

Civic education should include not only civic knowledge, but also civic skills and civic dispositions; it is important to provide a comprehensive approach to the development of citizenship. A social constructivist approach and a democratic form of teaching will be more effective in developing civic knowledge, skills, and dispositions. Not only do students retain more when they engage actively in the learning process, but also, and perhaps more importantly, a social constructivist approach and a democratic form of teaching allow the tutors and the program to model the civic knowledge, skills, and dispositions we want to see developed in students of the online civic education tutorial at UT.

The approach to the online civic education tutorial I am proposing is manageable and can be undertaken by UT without serious disruption. It is important to make the online tutorial activities manageable especially because the curriculum and pedagogy
that I propose for the tutorial might both be somewhat more complex than before. The management concerns would be addressed if students and tutors are happy and the curriculum and teaching situation are meeting their needs. The model that I propose hopefully would address some of their concerns about teaching and learning activities in the existing online civic education tutorial. In the sections below, I will address what needs to be done and how challenges might be addressed by tutors and administrators.

6.4. Implications

There will be several implications arising from the implementation of this social constructivist approach. Students, tutors and administrators might not have been acquainted with a social constructivist approach to a democratic form of teaching for the teaching and learning processes at UT. The model has to be introduced to students, tutors and administrators in order to be accepted and understood. However, it might be a challenge for students, tutors and administrators to adapt the pedagogical approach that is not so well known, because with this model, the teaching and learning process of the online civic education tutorial might be changed. There are some implications for students, tutors, and administrators if the model is to be implemented in the online tutorial.

6.4.1. Implications for Students

If my model of using a social pedagogical approach to a democratic form teaching is implemented in the online civic education tutorial at UT, there are several implications for students. First, students need to be more active in the discussion forums, because in my model, students are expected to have collaborative discussions and to discuss topics, case studies or solve problems that are given in any given week. Students are expected to participate in the discussions during the week. To be active in this regard includes not only participating actively by posting comments in the discussion forums, but also reading other students’ comments. In the past, students are likely just answered the discussion questions; there were no interactions among students and tutors. To make the discussions more effective, students and tutors are expected to build interactions. The interactions in the online civic education tutorial can be developed
when the students and tutors respond to each other’s opinions in the discussion forums with an intention to develop mutual knowledge and understanding.

Second, when the students become active in the discussion forums in the online civic education tutorial, one of the implications is that they have to give more of their time in the tutorial. They might need to log on to the online tutorial more often, and spend more of their time participating in the discussions.

Third, students have additional roles; not only they are participating as learners, but also they are facilitators or moderators in the discussions. As facilitators, students take a role as teachers. It might be a challenge for students, because they might not be familiar with that kind of role, and might not know how to facilitate the discussions. In that case, tutors need to explain or model how to facilitate the discussions in an online tutorial.

Fourth, in the online civic education tutorial using a social constructivist approach to a democratic form of teaching, students need to have a sense of critical thinking in the collaborative discussions with other students and their tutors. Students are expected to discuss and analyze topics or case studies in the discussions, and those activities require critical thinking.

6.4.2. Implications for Tutors

Besides students, there are also some implications for tutors if the model is applied. First, tutors need to provide much of their time in managing the online civic education tutorial. In my model, the roles of tutors are as facilitators and direct instructors who need to give attention, responses or feedback to students in the discussions. The online civic education tutorial has more than 300 students in one class, so tutors need to dedicate more of their time than before in order to give students a meaningful experience in the online civic education tutorial.

Second, tutors at UT are likely to have more than one online tutorial course. They also have other academic tasks and administrative responsibilities. Since tutors need to spend much of their time for the online civic education tutorial, they need to be able to manage their time wisely in order to deal with all of their academic and administrative
responsibilities. In addition, administrators will need to recognize the tutors’ need for more time.

Third, the current tutors of the online civic education tutorial have academic degrees in the field of civic education or degrees that might relate to civic education, such as public administration or social studies. One of them, for example, was trained as a civic education educator. Therefore, they likely have expertise in civic education. This expertise is necessary to be possessed by tutors in the online civic education tutorial that will use my model as a pedagogical approach because as direct instructors, tutors need to know and recognize if there are misconceptions in discussion activities.

Fourth, the online civic education tutorial using a social constructivist approach to a democratic form of teaching requires students and tutors to have and engage in critical thinking. Critical thinking needs to be learned and practiced. It cannot occur instantly. Tutors need to teach or model how to think critically to students, because not all students may recognize how to practice critical thinking. As well, the tutors themselves may need to learn and/or practice critical thinking before they engage in their teaching assignments.

Fifth, tutors of the online civic education tutorial may not be familiar with the social constructivist approach to a democratic form of teaching. In this regard, tutors need to be trained how to conduct an online tutorial with this approach. Moreover, tutors will need to accept the validity and utility of the social constructivist approach; developing acceptance and willingness to use this more demanding approach, and the abilities to do so may take some time.

6.4.3. Implications for Universitas Terbuka

There are some implications for UT if this model of online civic education tutorial using a social constructivist approach to democratic teaching is applied. First, it is necessary for UT to recruit more tutors to manage the online civic education tutorial. There are more than 3000 students registered for the course in every semester; if we try to implement the desires of students for more involvement by tutors and the tutors’ desires for more support, and if we work toward the goal of increased participation in the
tutorials by students, the online civic education tutorial would need at least a dozen more tutors to manage the tutorials. The numbers of classes are based on the assumption that there would be ten classes for the civic education course. Each class would encompass 300 students. Managing the online civic education tutorial with a social constructivist approach would demand a lot of work and is time consuming; that is why there would be a limit so that one tutor would manage only one class.

Second, UT not only needs to provide more tutors for the online civic education tutorial, but also needs to recruit tutors who have some background in civic education, because the tutors need to have expertise in civic education in order to manage the tutorial, as mentioned above. In order to recruit those tutors who have a willingness to be tutors in the online civic education tutorial, as well as having expertise in civic education, UT has to plan the recruitment process in advance before the online civic education tutorial begins. Therefore, UT will have to have enough time to find capable tutors, and not just recruit any tutors who do not have background in civic education.

Third, UT needs to provide training for tutors in order to implement a social constructivist approach to a democratic teaching because tutors might not be familiar with this pedagogical approach and how to apply it in the online civic education tutorial. In addition, UT needs to recruit trainers who have knowledge and/or expertise in social constructivist approaches for online tutorials.

Fourth, it would be also possible that UT will send some tutors to be trained to local or overseas universities that have experts in the online social constructivist approach. However, it would be less costly for UT if it could bring in the experts instead of sending tutors to other institutions. To recruit and train more tutors, recruit trainers, as well as send tutors to other universities, UT needs to provide enough funding for such activities.

Before proceeding further in considering these implications in depth, I will first examine a work on how organizations can incorporate and work with change and innovation. To do this, I will turn to Everett Rogers’ classic work, *Diffusion of Innovations*, first published in 1962 and now in its fifth edition (2003).
6.4.4. Implementing a New Approach: Diffusion of Innovation

Theory of Diffusion of Innovation

A social constructivist approach to a democratic form of teaching for the online civic education tutorial might be considered as a new innovation for a pedagogical approach at UT. A new innovation sometimes requires a new process to be adopted. The theory of diffusion of innovation from Rogers (2003) could be applied for investigating the adoption of innovation. This theory has four main elements, namely, innovation, communication channel, time, and social system.

In this theory, Rogers (2003) described an innovation as “an idea, practice, or project that is perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption” (p. 12). According to Rogers (2003), although an innovation may have been invented a long time ago, if individuals perceive an innovation as new, then it may still be an innovation for them, and this is particularly so if it has not been implemented by them or organizations related to them.

Rogers (2003) defined a communication channel as “a process in which participants create and share information with one another in order to reach mutual understanding” (p.5). Rogers (2003) asserted that diffusion is a specific kind of communication and includes the elements of an innovation, two individuals or other unit of adoption, and a communication channel. Communication channels include mass media and interpersonal communication. Mass media channels consist of a mass medium such as TV, radio, newspaper, or the Internet. Interpersonal channels include two-way communication between two or more individuals. Rogers (2003, p. 19) argued that “diffusion is a very social process that involves interpersonal communication relationship”; therefore, interpersonal channels are more powerful in creating or changing strong attitudes held by an individual.

Rogers (2003) outlined a social system as “a set of interrelated units that are engaged in joint problem solving to accomplish a common goal” (p. 23). The members or units of a social system may be individuals, informal groups, organizations, and/or subsystem. Diffusion occurs within the social system. The social structure of the system affects the innovation’s diffusion in several ways, such as the effect of norms on
diffusion, the roles of opinion leaders and change agents, types of innovation-decisions, and consequences of innovation (Rogers, 2003).

According to Rogers (2003), time is involved in diffusion in the innovation-diffusion process, and obviously in an innovation’s rate of adoption. Rogers (2003) defined the innovation-decision process as “the process through which an individual (or other decision-making unit) passes from first knowledge of innovation to forming an attitude toward the innovation, to a decision to adopt or reject, to implementation of the new idea, and to confirmation of this decision” (p. 37). Thus there are five steps in this process: knowledge, persuasion, decision, implementation, and confirmation. An individual will seek information at various stages in the innovation-decision process in order to decrease uncertainty about an innovation’s expected consequences. The decision stage leads to adoption or to rejection (Rogers, 2003).

Rogers (2003) stated that uncertainty is an obstacle to the adoption of innovations. He said that the degree of uncertainty about the innovation’s functioning and the social reinforcement from others (colleagues, peers, etc.) affects the individual’s opinions and beliefs about the innovation. To reduce the uncertainty of adopting the innovation, individuals should be informed about its advantages and disadvantages to make them aware of all its consequences. Rogers (2003) added that consequences can be classified as desirable versus undesirable (functional or dysfunctional), direct versus indirect (immediate result or result of the immediate result), and anticipated versus unanticipated (recognizes and intended or not).

Rogers (2003) proposed attributes of innovations that help to decrease uncertainty about the innovation. Attributes of innovations includes five characteristics of innovations that could predict the rate of adoption of innovation. The characteristics consist of relative advantages, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability. Rogers (2003) defined relative advantages as “the degree to which an innovation is perceived as being better than the idea it supersedes” (p. 229). The elements of relative advantages are the cost and social status motivation aspects of innovation. The rate of adopting innovation and the effectiveness of relative advantages might increase if direct or indirect financial payment incentives are used to support the individuals or a social system in adopting innovation (Sahin, 2006).
Another motivation factor in the diffusion process is the compatibility attribute. Rogers (2003) stated that “compatibility is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as consistent with the existing values, past experiences, and needs of potential adopter” (p.15). Uncertainty will decrease and the rate of adoption of the innovation will increase if an innovation is compatible with an individual's needs (Sahiri, 2006). In addition, an innovation tends to be adopted if the naming of the innovation is meaningful and its means of adoption are also clear for the potential adopter (Sahiri, 2006). This is part of the complexity attribute. Rogers (2003) defined complexity as “the degree to which an innovation is perceived as relatively difficult to understand and use” (p. 15). Complexity of an innovation is an obstacle in its adoption. The more complex an innovation, the more difficult it will be for the innovation to be adopted.

The next characteristic of innovation is trialability. According to Rogers (2003), trialability is “the degree to which an innovation may be experimented with on a limited basis” (p. 16). The more an innovation is tried, the faster its adoption is. Reinvention may occur during the trial of the innovation, where the potential adopter may change or modify the innovation (Sahiri, 2006). Finally, Rogers (2003) defined observability as “the degree to which the results of an innovation are visible to others” (p. 16). Observability is positively correlated with the rate of adoption of an innovation (Sahiri, 2006).

The Implementation of the Theory of Diffusion of Innovation

The implementation of a social constructivist approach for an online tutorial might not be a really new idea in education. It might have been applied in online tutorials at other universities in the world. However, for students, tutors and administrators at UT it still might be considered as a new idea because I believe the approach has not been applied on online tutorials at UT before. Therefore, students, tutors, and administrators at UT need an adaptation to accept the model that I proposed as it can be seen to represent an innovation.

For the adaptation of the model of a social constructivist approach to a democratic form of teaching in the online civic education tutorial, the communication channel that could be used to persuade students, tutors and administrators at UT is interpersonal communication. The students, tutors, and administrators could be informed through a socialization, workshop, or training about the model.
To adopt (or to reject) the new approach in the online civic education tutorial certainly requires a process and time. Students, tutors and administrators at UT would learn and seek the information or need to be informed before the social constructivist approach and a democratic form of teaching would be implemented in the online civic education tutorial. They would be informed what the approach is, and how and why it works (Rogers, 2003). Students, tutors, and administrators would know what the implications or the consequences would be for them if they adopt the approach. In this stage, students, tutors and administrators might feel uncertain about the approach. Tutors and administrators especially would want consider the advantages and disadvantages of the approach for students, tutors, and UT before they decide whether they would like to adopt or reject it. To address their uncertainty about the model it would be necessary to acknowledge their concerns and point to existing research on the benefits and the limitations of the model that will flow from implementing it in the online civic education tutorial.

The considerations from students, tutors and administrators to adopt the new model in the online civic education tutorial might be seen from the perspective of the relative advantages seen by the various stakeholders: whether students, tutors and administrators at UT see the social constructivist approach to a democratic form of teaching as being better than the previous pedagogical approach. Further research is needed to determine which approach would be considered as being better by students, tutors and administrators. I can only assume that students, tutors and administrators might consider adopting or rejecting the model based on the implications or the consequences for them if the model is being considered for implementation. Also, they might consider it based on the cost of implementing the model. For example, UT would have to provide more financial support for facilitating training and recruiting more tutors.

The rate of adopting my model for the online civic education tutorial can be predicted from the compatibility of the model for students, tutors and administrators of UT, and whether the model would be perceived as consistent with their existing values, past experiences, and needs. My assumption is that students, tutors and administrators may need the new model for the online civic education tutorial because it more effectively and meaningfully addresses elements of civic education that are relevant to
the lives of students and to the further development of civic engagement in Indonesian society.

Students, tutors and administrators also would see the complexity of the model. If they recognize the model is difficult to understand and apply in the online civic education tutorial, students, tutors and administrators might reject the model. I realize that the model that I propose using a social constructivist approach to a democratic form of teaching might be quite difficult to apply in the online civic education tutorial at UT with a large numbers of students. Therefore, the model needs to be experimented with on a limited basis, perhaps just for one class. From this trial, the tutor in this class might want to modify the model to make it manageable. If the first trial succeeds, perhaps other tutors and administrators could see that the model is worth being implemented in the online civic education tutorial at UT.

Getting an innovation adopted, even when it has obvious advantages, is difficult. Often, innovations require many years from the time when they become available to the time they are widely adopted (Rogers, 2003). Therefore, it is might be necessary to consider the process of innovation and its components to increase the probability of it being accepted and implemented.

6.5. Suggestions and Recommendations

I suggest that UT should implement the model because it will change the online civic education tutorial to become more interactive; having an interactive, more democratic process will itself teach the ideals of democratic civic engagement: this model is good not only because it promotes the ideal of democracy, but also because it develops civic cultures and the practice of democracy in the class.

The roles of students and the approaches in the teaching and learning process of the online civic education tutorial would change. Thus, some students might express some resistance to these new ways of constructively building knowledge. Therefore, tutors and administrators need to be aware of this reality and also need to consider how they might address such resistance. My suggestions to deal with this resistance are that
the tutors need to listen carefully to students, acknowledge their valid concerns, work with them to develop solutions, and model the interactive, constructivist approach the program is promoting.

Besides students, tutors might also find it is a challenge to apply the social constructivist approach to this democratic form of teaching for the online civic education tutorial. To help tutors, I would recommend that tutors should be given more time to learn and to implement this approach. The social constructivist approach to a democratic form of teaching is a new pedagogical approach for tutors, and it might not easy for them to understand how to teach or manage the online tutorial with this approach. As I mentioned above, probably in being implemented for first time, this model would be assessed for one or two classes of the online civic education tutorial to see how students and tutors adapt and accept this model. The first implementation of this approach may not be perfect. However, if tutors continue to learn and practice, hopefully they will become familiar with and be able to apply this model to manage the online civic education tutorial.

Managing the online civic education tutorial with large numbers of students and using the social constructivist approach to democratic form of teaching will the increase work load and it is time consuming. I would suggest that UT might need to reduce the number of courses that are managed by one tutor per semester to give tutors more time. This is also the reason that UT needs to recruit more instructors/tutors.

The social constructivist approach might have not been well known at UT, so there might be almost no trainers from UT who could teach this approach. If UT would like to offer training in the social constructivist approach for tutors, I would suggest that UT need to find and hire people who have expertise in this approach from other universities, either from Indonesia or other countries. Another possibility is that UT could send tutors to other universities in Indonesia or abroad that have experts in the social constructivist approach for online learning. Furthermore, after receiving training from experts, UT's tutors would become expert themselves in the social constructivist pedagogical approach and they could train other tutors. Therefore, in the future, the training of the social constructivist approach for online tutorials is a continuing program where learning is passed from more established tutors to new tutors at UT.
Providing online tutorial trainings for tutors by bringing in trainers from other universities or sending tutors to other universities, especially overseas universities would cost a lot. To make all this training possible, I would suggest that UT may need to seek out sources for additional funding from government, business or social organizations, international organizations, the World Bank, UNESCO, and so forth.

6.6. Limitations of the Study

This study has limitations. First, it only provides experiences and opinions from a few students and tutors about the online civic education tutorial at UT. Their opinions contribute to my understanding about the current online civic education tutorial and the rationale for changing the pedagogical approach of the tutorial. However, I only managed to interview seven students who have taken the online civic education tutorial in a focus group interview and six tutors who teach the tutorial in individual interviews. The opinions from students in this study might not represent the opinions of the whole population of students who have taken the online civic education tutorial. There might be some different opinions that are not represented. Furthermore, tutors of the online civic education tutorial sometime would change per semester. Even though I interviewed almost all tutors who teach the online civic education tutorial at the time I collected the data, their opinions also might not represent opinions of all tutors who taught the tutorial in the past and will teach the tutorial in the future.

Second, the entire focus of this study reflects my own biases, epistemological orientations, interests, and conclusions with regard to the social constructivist approach to a democratic form of teaching; there are, of course, other perspectives and pedagogical approaches for what might be best for students, tutors, and UT with regard to the implementation of the online civic education tutorial at UT. The other pedagogical approaches for civic education include, for example, a Portfolio learning model.

The Portfolio learning model was adapted from We The People, a Project Citizen, developed by the Center of Civic Education (CCE), which is based in Calabas, California. The model has been adapted by about fifty countries, including Indonesia. This model is a generic pedagogical approach; the materials can be tailored to the
conditions of each country (Novar, 2012). This model is targeted for students in primary and secondary schools. Basically, the Portfolio learning model uses the social constructivist learning principles, such as student active learning, cooperative learning, participatory learning, and reactive teaching. The steps of the instruction in the Portfolio learning model are: step 1: identifying public policy problems in community; step 2: selecting a problem for class study; step 3: gathering information on the problem the class will study; step 4: developing a class portfolio; step 5: presenting the portfolio; and step 6: reflecting on learning experience. The aim of the Portfolio-based learning model is to seek a variety of skills for the students, especially with regard to sensitivity in locating and determining an urgent problem to be solved, formulate issues, and determine the various sources that are expected to help solve the problem; the students are trained to collect the data or information related to a variety of sources with public policy; formulate a report format on data collection, and present a portfolio that contains efforts to solve societal problems (Novar, 2012).

The Portfolio learning model has not been applied widely yet in a Civic Education course in the university level in Indonesia, and especially not in distance learning universities. This approach is a good model for students to gain civic knowledge, civic skills and civic dispositions. However, the Portfolio learning model seems to be more effective if it is applied in the face-to-face class environment. For the online civic education tutorial with a large numbers of students where they do not study in the same place and at the same time, it is a challenge to manage the instructional activities from the Portfolio learning model. Therefore, I have concluded as a result of my research that the social constructivist approach and a democratic form of teaching that I propose for the online civic education tutorial at UT remains viable and is worth pursuing for the benefits it will bring to UT, its students and tutors, and for Indonesian society.

6.7. Recommendations for Further Research

An exploration and discussion has been made regarding a model of a pedagogical approach for the online civic education tutorial at UT Indonesia. Some suggestions can be made about the direction for further research.
1. Research focusing on the implementation and effectiveness of the model in the online civic education tutorial at UT is required to get a better understanding of whether the model that uses a social constructivist approach for a democratic form of teaching would be effective as a pedagogical approach in the online tutorial.

2. Further research needs to be conducted on students’ and tutors’ perceptions and acceptance of the model in the online civic education tutorial. Research in this area may expand our knowledge of students’ and tutors’ reactions and understandings about the new pedagogical approach in the online civic education tutorial.

3. It might be possible to implement the social constructivist approach for a democratic form of teaching in the online tutorial of other courses at UT. Therefore, research on the implementation and effectiveness, as well as students’ and tutors’ perceptions and acceptance, of the model could also be conducted for the online tutorials of other courses.
References


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Appendix A.

Interview Questions with Tutors and Students at Universitas Terbuka

Interview Questions with Tutors

1. How long have you been teaching civic education at UT?
   a. What is your strategy to manage your online class?
   b. What are the challenges you face?
2. What do you feel about the needs of 21st century Indonesian students as citizens? [looki for a listing of important knowledge, skills, attitudes]
3. What is your understanding of the philosophy behind civic education in Indonesian higher education?
4. What do you think should be the aims of civic education at UT at present?
5. I am going to ask some questions about curriculum material and pedagogical approaches. The first question is about curriculum. Civic education has been taught for all of students at UT based on the printed material/module. What is your opinion about the content of the module?
   a. Does the material that is currently presented in your opinion, match or align with the philosophy and aims of civic education at UT?
   b. What subject areas does the current curriculum cover? [I am looking for a listing here]
      i. What civic knowledge does it cover?
      ii. What civic skills does it cover?
      iii. What civic attitudes does it cover?
   c. What knowledge do you think we should transmit to the students in the civic education program? What knowledge do you think is important? [here I am looking for specific details of what the instructor feels is important curricular material]
   d. What skills do you think we should transmit to the students in the civic education program? What skills do you think are important? [here I am looking for specific details of what the instructor feels is important curricular material]
   e. What attitudes do you think we should transmit to the students in the civic education program? What attitudes do you think are important? [here I am looking for specific details of what the instructor feels is important curricular material]
   f. Do you think the current curriculum covers all the necessary areas of civic education?
6. As you know, Indonesia is a multicultural nation and sometime there are conflicts that are occur because of misunderstanding of the differences between them. In the current curriculum, there is no material that is talking about multicultural civic education. Do you think that we need to add it in the curriculum of civic education at UT? If so, why? If not, why not?
   a. Is there specific knowledge about multiculturalism that we need to include?
   b. Are there specific attitudes you feel students need to learn?
   c. Are there specific skills related to multiculturalism that students need to learn and we need to include in the curriculum?
7. One of the goals of civic education for university students is to promote them to become active citizens in public life. Do you think the current curriculum includes enough materials about political participation? Again, in the current curriculum I do not see the materials which discuss about political participation. Do you think that we need to add it in the curriculum of civic education at UT? If so, why, if not, why not?
8. Pedagogy refers to how we teach; the specific teaching approaches or strategies that we use in the classroom. I would like to now ask some questions about pedagogy.
   a. How effective is the pedagogical approach of civic education course at UT, in your opinion, in delivering the course material?
   b. What kind of pedagogical approach do you take? What is important to you with regard to teaching style?

9. According to you, what is/are the most suitable pedagogical approach(es) for civic education at UT? Why? (Explain your answer).
   a. Do you think there is a good match or fit or alignment between the course content (curriculum) we wish to teach and our pedagogical/teaching approaches? For example, let me use multiculturalism as an example. If we want students to learn about what it means to live and participate as a citizen in a multicultural society such as Indonesia, should our teaching approaches themselves help students learn the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that we feel are necessary. So, for example, would we want to stress having students from different cultural backgrounds work together?

10. Can you suggest some pedagogical approaches or strategies or ideas that would make civic education at UT more effective?
   a. In transmitting the civic knowledge you feel are important?
   b. In transmitting the civic attitudes you feel are important?
   c. In transmitting the civic skills you feel are important? Why do you think these approaches or strategies would be more effective?

11. I would like to propose social constructivist (SC) approach as a pedagogical approach for civic education at UT. Social constructivist approach is a learning theory that promote active learning, collaborative learning where students are the key players who participate in generating meaning or understanding.
   a. Do you feel a SC approach would be effective in transmitting:
      i. Civic knowledge?
      ii. Civic skills?
      iii. Civic attitudes?
   b. Do you think there might be any problems or limitations in using a SC approach at UT?
   c. A social constructivist approach gives more responsibility to the instructor in terms of paying close attention to the students’ needs and how they respond. Do you think you would want to apply this approach in your civic education teaching? Why or why not?
Interview Questions with Students

1. What are your understandings about civic education and its aims?
   a. What is civic education?
   b. What aims do you think CE should have?
   c. What knowledge do you think CE should impart to students?
   d. What skills do you think CE should impart to students?
   e. What attitudes do you think CE should impart to students?
2. Do you think that civic education should be a required course in university? If so, why? If not, why not?
3. Do you find that civic education that is taught at UT is an interesting course for you? If so, why? If not, why not?
   a. If it is/is not interesting to you, what makes the course interesting/not interesting? [Could be either or both of curriculum content and pedagogy; as well, could be the personality of the instructor?]
4. What do you think about the content/materials of the civic education course at UT?
5. What are the strengths and weaknesses in the content/materials of the civic education course at UT?
6. What do you think about the teaching and learning process in the online tutorial of civic education course at UT?
7. What are the strengths and weaknesses in the teaching and learning process of the civic education course at UT?
8. What do you like or dislike about the civic education course?
9. What challenges did you have when you took civic education course at UT?
10. What do you suggest to make the civic education course at UT to be more interesting?
    a. In transmitting knowledge?
    b. In transmitting skills?
    c. In transmitting attitudes?
11. What do you suggest to make the civic education course at UT to be more interesting?
    a. In transmitting knowledge?
    b. In transmitting skills?
    c. In transmitting attitudes?
12. I would like to propose social constructivist (SC) approach as a pedagogical approach for civic education at UT. SC approach is a learning theory that promote active learning, collaborative learning where students are the key players who participate in generating meaning or understanding. [might need to give more explanation about SC]
    a. Do you feel a SC approach would be effective in transmitting:
       i. Civic knowledge?
       ii. Civic skills?
       iii. Civic attitudes?
    b. Do you think there might be any problems or limitations in using a SC approach at UT?
    c. A social constructivist approach gives more responsibility to the students in terms of generating knowledge and interacting with the instructor and other students. Do you think you would want to experience this approach in your civic education learning? Why or why not?
Appendix B.

Informed Consent by Participants in a Research Study

Designing an Online Civic Education Program at Universitas Terbuka, Indonesia
(DORE Application #2012s0241)

Simon Fraser University, Canada and Made Yudhi Setiani, a doctoral candidate conducting this research study, subscribe to the ethical conduct of research and to the protection at all times of the interests, comfort, and safety of participants. This research is being conducted under permission of the Simon Fraser Research Ethics Board. The chief concern of the Board is for the health, safety and psychological well-being of research participants.

Should you wish to obtain information about your rights as a participant in research, or about the responsibilities of researchers, or if you have any questions, concerns or complaints about the manner in which you were treated in this study, please contact Dr. Allan MacKinnon, Associate Professor, Faculty of Education, Tel: xxxx, E-mail: xxxx or the Director, Office of Research Ethics, Tel: xxxx, E-mail: xxxx

Your signature on this form will signify that you have received this document which describes the procedures, that you have reviewed all three pages of this documents, considered whether there are possible risks, and benefits of this research study, that you have received an adequate opportunity to consider the information in the documents describing the study, and that you voluntarily agree to participate in the study.

Name and Contact of Principal Investigator
MADE YUDHI SETIANI, Faculty of Education
Tel: xxxx
Email: xxxx

Name and Contact of Senior Supervisor
Dr. ALLAN MACKINNON, Faculty of Education
Tel: xxxx
Email: xxxx

Name and Contact of the Director, Office of Research Ethics
Dr. HAL WEINBERG
Tel: xxxx
Email: xxxx
Title: Designing an Online Civic Education Program at Universitas Terbuka, Indonesia

Investigator Name: Made Yudhi Setiani
Senior Supervisor: Dr. Allan MacKinnon

Purpose and goals of this study:
This study will guide the development of an online civic education program at Universitas Terbuka (Open University), in Tangerang, Indonesia. This study will explore a social constructivist perspective on learning to inform the design and pedagogy of an online civic education course. Much of the research will involve a review and analysis of literature about distance education and online learning, as well as research in civic education, for the purpose of developing a position statement regarding the design and implementation of the course. In order to develop a realistic plan for Universitas Terbuka, I plan to survey and interview students and instructors of the current civic education course about their experiences and opinions about the course.

What the participants will be required to do:
Your participation in this study is being sought in your capacity as a participant in the civic education course at Universitas Terbuka. I am seeking your participation in an interview in which I will ask open-ended questions about your experiences, opinions and thoughts of the current online tutorial in the civic education course at Universitas Terbuka and the possibility of using social constructivist approach as its pedagogy. The interview will last up to 60 minutes, but its duration could be extended if you volunteer additional information and have available time.

Benefit of taking part of this study:
Possible benefits to you for participating include the opportunity to be part of improving the civic education course at Universitas Terbuka.

Risks to the participant, third parties or society:
There are no foreseen risks associated with participating in the interview process.

Statement of confidentiality:
Confidentiality is assured unless otherwise determined by you. You have the opportunity to speak on or off the record, and to determine whether or not your comments are provided for my report. In writing the dissertation and subsequent publications, I may quote you but not identify you, unless you give me written permission, through reviewing my draft report prior to release or publication.

For focus group interview, by consenting to participate in the focus group, you confirm that any information you encounter will be kept confidential and not revealed to parties outside the focus group. Although the objective is to maintain confidentiality, it cannot be guaranteed. In order to protect confidentiality, every attempt will be made to keep confidential records. Recordings of the interview, transcription and interview notes will be coded to a participant key, and personal identifiers will be removed if you chose to comment anonymously.

All interviews will be digitally recorded and transcribed and transcriptions will be kept on the hard drive of my password-protected computer for the purposes of analysis. After analysis is complete, the data will be transferred to an external hard drive and stored in a locked cabinet for five years.

Interview of employees about their institution:
The principal investigator has obtained permission from the institute (Universitas Terbuka) to conduct this study. This statement has been checked prior to approaching the participant.

Inclusion of names of participants in reports of the study:
Knowledge of your identity is not required.
Contact of participants at a future time or use of the data in other studies:
The information you have contributed may be used in future studies that may be similar (or
dissimilar) and may require future contact with you. Do you agree to future contact?
1. Yes
2. No

Contact for further information
I understand that I may withdraw my participation at any time. I also understand that I may
register any concerns or complaints with Made Yudhi Setiani or her senior supervisor at the
Faculty of Education, Dr. Allan MacKinnon, Associate Professor, Tel. xxxx, E-mail: xxxx. If I have
any questions about my rights as a research subject, I could contact Dr. Hal Weinberg, Director of
the Office of Research Ethics, Simon Fraser University, 8888 University Drive, Burnaby, BC, V5A
1S6, Tel. xxxx, Email: xxxx. I may obtain copies of the results of this study upon its completion
by contacting Made Yudhi Setiani at xxxx or xxxx

Having been asked to participate in the research study named above, I certify that I have read the
procedures specified in this document (pages 1-4) describing the study. I understand the
procedures to be used in this study and the personal risks to me in taking part in the study as
described above.

Signature: ___________________________________
Date: _____________________________________
Participant Full Name: _______________________
Participant Contact Information: ______________

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